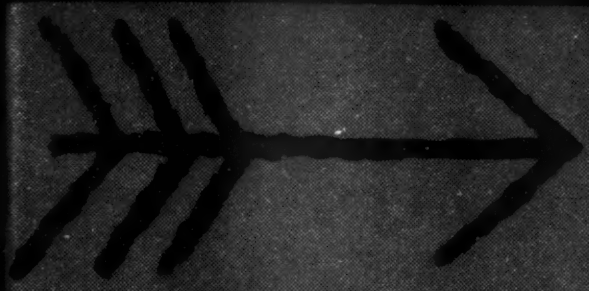
TRENDS IN EDUCATION



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Senior Staff Roles
Methods of Communication
Measuring "School Climate"
Religious Education
Commonwealth Immigrants
Curriculum Planning
Assessing FE Courses
School Counselling

APRIL 1973

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and Science

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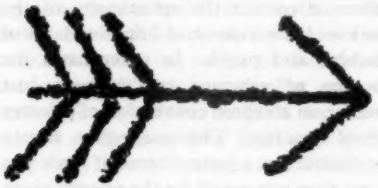

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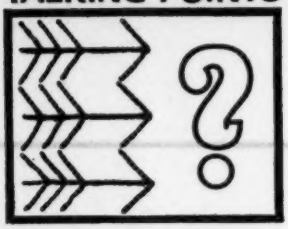
TALKING POINTS



MODES OF LEARNING

It is the aim of a growing number of primary schools to promote first hand learning and programmes of work tailored to the abilities and interests of individual children. Stress is laid on the use of the environment and the school's resources, on the interests of children and the encouragement of independent writing, recording and investigation. Much of this activity has been carried out in the context of combined studies, and varying claims have been made for what can be achieved. Whereas some schools claim little more than useful practice with reference books and a stimulus to ask and answer questions, others would go further and refer to closer insights into the development of society and into ways of life in different times and places. One factor influencing the outcome is undoubtedly the degree of planning, another is the capacity of teachers to record the progress of individuals and adjust the work to individual attainment.

Primary to Secondary

Primary schools readily acknowledge that some areas of the curriculum in which work of this type is attempted take up a small part of the working week. With combined studies the canvas is so wide as to make selection difficult and very open to strong individual preferences and prejudices. In practice, activities may take place, and the materials for the learning of history, geography or science may be present but it is common to find schools working without a systematic scheme at all in these areas of the curriculum. Why is this?

The recent study of junior school geography summarised in *Trends No. 28* suggested some of the reasons. One is that the absence of a generally accepted allotment of time for such subjects as geography, history or science may reduce the teacher's interest in preparing a schematic arrangement for the work. There is sometimes felt to be a risk that schemes will ossify and perpetuate themselves or restrict the spontaneity of the work and the individual initiative both of teachers and pupils. In other cases the absence of schemes has perhaps just become an accepted convention of primary school practice. The geography survey concluded that a poor scheme of work was worse than none at all for the reasons given above. But it did find that almost all those schools achieving conspicuously good results in geography, whether as single subject or within a combined studies programme, had prepared schemes of work which indicated both the general objectives and the kinds of learning experiences through which they might be achieved.

Such schemes can of course provide all the desired opportunity for group or individual work, topics or projects. Their existence should influence the choice of assignment and make for some schematic relationships between the assignments selected. Thus children may each contribute to a project in accordance with their ability and a useful exercise in cooperative learning, perhaps involving the production of a composite booklet, may emerge. The point is that the individual work has been coordinated in the interests of a progressive and developing plan for the class unit, not only throughout the year but over the whole primary age range.

Such experiences have inspired a growing feeling that more structured schemes can provide both for a pattern of learning and for progress from year to year and at the same time for the tastes of individual teachers and children to find expression. Many schools are already carrying out interesting experiments on these lines. In some in-service training courses and in group work done at Teachers' Centres and in Schools' Council projects various explorations of what can be done to devise more purposeful approaches to

learning are now taking place. We shall hear more of development along these lines in the future.

Progress to Secondary Stage

One of the unplanned but nevertheless welcome consequences of the newer kind of work in primary schools is that secondary schools can build on it both in the early years and in preparing courses in connection with the raising of the school-leaving age. There is a familiar echo of such primary-school methods in some related studies involving English, history, geography, art and religious education.

One secondary school, for example, has broken down the traditional subject barriers by relating their content over six terms of work to such topics as human ecology, man and the land, man and leisure, man and communications, man and work, and man and conflict. For pupils who cannot aspire to GCE courses, there is the possibility of the CSE Mode III syllabus, organised around this sort of framework.

Here again, as at primary level, planning and cooperation are essential. Topics are selected in a sequence—perhaps chronological—so that they can be integrated into the subject disciplines. Each pupil makes a visit to a particular place of interest, which becomes a focal point for each topic, and the pupils educate each other by group work, exhibitions, improvised drama and tape-recordings. The cooperative deployment of teaching skills and enthusiasms, for example in preparing for a visit, or in introducing a new topic, becomes an essential feature of such an approach.

A Curriculum Consensus?

These and similar developments now taking place raise a number of questions about curricular contacts between primary and secondary schools. Most observers still note the sharply contrasting styles or types of education to which an overlapping age range is exposed. What can be done to cushion the effect of that abrupt change of educational direction which too many children now have to experience? For secondary schools which receive from a large number of primary schools the difficulties are obvious enough, but in general there has been a striking increase of effort to prepare for the transfer of pupils. Where matters affecting their placement, grading and general welfare are concerned much useful information may pass from primary to secondary school and yet little consideration be given to the relationship between the actual *modes* of learning adopted for primary and secondary stages. Curriculum studies in which teachers from different schools are involved seem the most promising approach to the problem. Increasingly teachers are setting out to identify educational objectives for the 11–15 age range and to establish agreements about the broad issues of content and method. There is not as yet any consensus but the following propositions provide a basis for discussion and comment on them would be welcomed.

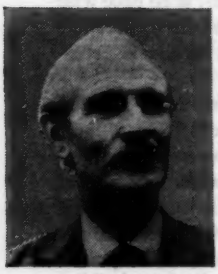
1. The planning and introduction of curriculum reform must keep pace with the growth of conscious awareness amongst teachers that reform is necessary and achievable.
2. Any fundamental long-term revision of the curriculum needs to start from the unity of pupil experience and to transcend its present watertight subject boundaries. Integration schemes need to reflect a full appreciation of the essential character of subject disciplines.
3. The traditional grammar school curriculum in the middle years, a broad band of largely academic subjects, does not meet the needs of the majority of pupils nor do justice to all pupils' practical and aesthetic propensities. Throughout the school, but perhaps increasingly so as the pupil grows older, curricular content and methods must be adjusted to meet the differing potentials, interests and needs of pupils, whatever the form of organisation and grouping.
4. Curriculum and organisation should not compartmentalise, categorise and cocoon pupils but allow movement, change of interest and back-tracking.
5. The curriculum may best be considered in terms of areas or varieties of educational experience, rather than in terms of separate subjects.

Questions for Schools

What part should teachers play in the management of schools? In their often complex tasks of administration what are the methods of communication? Can the corporate life of a school be assessed, and if so how? These and related questions are explored in three articles in this issue. Senior staff roles are delineated by a secondary school headmaster; an HM Inspector discusses techniques of communication; and a university school of education lecturer writes about the measurement of 'school climate'.

Senior Staff Roles in Secondary Schools

DENYS JOHN



Denys John headmaster of Nailsea Comprehensive School, near Bristol and member of the Schools Council Working Party on the Whole Curriculum

The roles of teachers in the management of schools have received insufficient attention.* Organisational structures frequently reflect traditional arrangements with patched on additions to meet new needs. Directors of studies, curriculum coordinators and counsellors tend to be the subjects of *Times Educational Supplement* advertisements as additions to the now well established roles of deputy head, senior master or mistress, heads of subject departments and the somewhat newer housemasters, housemistresses or year heads. Moreover the evidence of the advertisements also indicates the existence of heads of lower, middle and upper schools, sometimes in schools organised on a house basis and sometimes in schools with a year group organisation. Both old stagers in the teaching profession and newcomers may well feel that there is some value in attempting to analyse the inter-relationships between these roles both new and old.

Staff Consultation

In any examination of the managerial structure of a school the first question which must be considered is the role of the head and the manner in which he arranges for consultation with his colleagues and participation by them in the making of policy. Articles of Government in maintained schools place upon the head the ultimate accountability. But this does not imply that he should ignore the need to involve his colleagues in discussion about policy. Only by such discussion can staff members maintain and develop their stature as responsible professional people. Moreover few policies are likely to be implemented successfully without the informed support of all the teachers involved. In the final analysis, this is going to mean that the entire staff group, however large, must participate in discussion.

* *The Teacher, the School and the Task of Management* is an important study of this question by Miss Elizabeth Richardson, Research Fellow of the School of Education, Bristol University, to be published by Heinemann's.

The Staff Cabinet, Committee or Council

Some smaller consultative group will nevertheless be required to assist in agenda building, to direct attention to problems which call for consideration and to provide counsel when emergencies arise. Traditionally the head receives assistance of this kind from his deputy, accompanied in a mixed school by the senior master or mistress. With the increase in the size of schools has come the custom of enlarging this 'inner cabinet' or 'standing committee'. From some quarters has come the suggestion that an obligation should be imposed upon heads by Articles of Government to consult a 'staff council'. These developments lead to the necessity for an urgent consideration of how such a cabinet, committee or council should be composed.

We are here thinking of a permanent body, not a working party set up for a specific purpose to gather information or provide recommendations which will save the head and full staff group a lot of spade work. For a working party, a random collection of enthusiastic volunteers will suffice because their work is limited to providing raw material for the consideration of others—possibly the whole staff group. Unlike a mere working party the cabinet, committee or council has a number of executive functions in the implementation of policy and the organisation of consultative arrangements. It consequently must have authority. This involves sanction both from above and from below, that is on the one hand status in the staff hierarchy accorded by governors and head and on the other, respect in the eyes of the staff group as a whole, earned by the successful fulfilment of onerous and taxing roles.

A tempting idea is that this top management council should be accorded its authority by being elected by the whole staff group. Such a procedure seems particularly attractive as it possesses the apparently overwhelming advantage of being 'democratic'. Words do not however always mean what they appear to mean. An elected council may fail to possess sanction from below as well as from above. An election should mean freedom for any staff member to be a candidate young or old, experienced or inexperienced. Indeed in some schools a positive virtue is seen in involving newcomers to the staff and even probationer teachers in policy making, by reserving council places for them. It is quite possible for governors and head to place more confidence in the judgement of certain teachers not on the elected council than in that of some of those who are. As for those senior teachers who are not voted on to the council, their lot becomes anomalous; their status is eroded. An American educationist described the effect of elected councils upon heads of department as 'cutting them off at the knees'.

A possible solution would be to create at the top of the staff of a large secondary school a certain number of very responsible roles, responding to carefully identified and specified facets of the school's objectives. The number of such roles—anything from four to ten—must depend upon the manner in which coherent patterns of responsibilities are envisaged and the number of senior staff members available who have already earned the respect and confidence of their colleagues.

The 'job specifications' of these top management roles require careful attention. Obviously they must have status and coherence. Without status and coherence they will give little satisfaction to the holders. A heterogeneous collection of chores which no one else can be found to do would be quite inappropriate; so would roles equal in respon-

sibility to those held by non members of the top management group. It would be unsuitable to include in this group some housemasters, for instance, while excluding others. An equally unfortunate decision would be to include all senior teachers deemed to hold 'pastoral' roles (for instance house or year heads) and exclude heads of department or vice versa. The result would be to create a pastoral/curricular split in which the governors and head would have indicated a biased judgement about the relative importance of house/year roles on the one hand, and departmental roles on the other. If, in a given school, there is a tradition that heads of sections of the school, for instance lower, middle and upper, are entrusted with both pastoral and curricular functions and if in practice they actually function in this dual capacity, such section heads might well be appointed to the top management group.

It has already been suggested that the roles of the very senior staff who provide a permanent consultative council or committee may best be specified in any given school by a careful survey of the main facets of the objectives of the institution. In selecting appropriate complexes of tasks it will be helpful to identify those areas which by general agreement can benefit from development and which will require maintenance. Areas of responsibility which spring to mind include (1) staff duties including timetable and class allocation, (2) examinations, assessments, reports and evaluation, (3) staff development, in-service training including the guidance of probationers and supervision of students on teaching practice, (4) personal, social and careers education involving leadership of and consultation with heads of department on the question of sex and health education, road and water safety, decision making and self appraisal and the 'life styles' of various samples of occupation, (5) development and allocation of resources and finances (library and resource centres, teaching materials, teaching aids, specialised facilities, camps, outings, excursions, capitation allowances and unofficial funds etc.), (6) external relations (PTA, old students association, community service, work experience, courses and conferences).

No doubt many similar networks of responsibilities will appear more appropriate in different schools. Often these facets of a school's task are undertaken by the head himself and suffer as a consequence from the relatively spasmodic attention which he can afford to give them. Sometimes it may be that parts of these areas of responsibility have been delegated to fairly junior members of staff and have been consequently regarded as entailing routine maintenance rather than development. This has perhaps been the reason why education in personal relationships and careers, for example, have been seen as aspects of the school task which have had to be fitted in to free time or grudgingly allowed one period per week rather than being integrated into the total curriculum. Lack of seniority can be a grave handicap when the cooperation of heads of department is being sought.

In whatever way the job specifications of the top management group are devised clearly the deputy head and the second master or mistress must occupy two of the places on the council or committee. The other members, however many or however few they are, should be remunerated at the highest scales which the governors have at their disposal. The 1972 Burnham Arbitral Award introduced senior

teacher scales. Where these are available they would seem appropriate for members of a top management group. As only three such teachers may be recognised, and then only in a school which is Group 10 or above, the council would either be limited to six members (including the head) or additional members could be placed on scale 5.

Early in this section it was argued that a staff council must coincide with the most senior, status-carrying roles in the staff hierarchy, that is to say it should not include certain junior roles to the exclusion of other senior ones. The present system by which senior appointments are made by governors with LEA approval (either internally or by advertisement from external applicants) precludes recourse to 'democratic election' as a means of ensuring staff support for the top management group. The same may be said for the position of the head of the school. There is a current of feeling among many teachers that the office of head of a school (and no doubt the same may be said of the members of a staff council) should be subject to periodic election by members of the entire staff group. One's attitude to this suggestion will depend upon two things: firstly upon one's estimation of whether a staff group, by election, is likely to effect better appointments than the usual procedures of LEAs and school governors and whether the criteria which are brought to bear are really different; secondly one's view will depend upon how one feels about the relative merits of periodic accountability to the rest of the staff compared with the advantages of continuity. If the advantages of election for a period are deemed overwhelming, then the security of tenure of headships and other senior appointments must be ended. One wonders whether this is possible without calling in question the security of tenure of all teaching appointments above the basic scale.

The Staff Hierarchy

Perhaps a brief survey is called for about my reference to the 'staff hierarchy'. There is evidence of reluctance among teachers to recognise that few, if any, complex organisations can exist without graduated levels of responsibility of increasing scope and differentially remunerated. This principle is embodied in the eight scales of the Burnham Award (Scales 1 to 5, senior teacher, senior master/mistress/deputy head and head). It provides career prospects in financial terms and, providing a school's responsibility structure is appropriately organised, also in terms of increasing challenge to experience. Nevertheless the egalitarian ideals frequently current in staff common rooms may tempt teachers into a denial of this inequality. A housemaster (Scale 4) was once heard referring to the head, deputy head and senior mistress as 'the hierarchy' in blissful denial that he was himself, like every other one of his colleagues, a member of 'the hierarchy'. A head of department on another occasion expressed a wish that in the common room others should think of him by his christian name and forget that he was a head of department. The conclusion to be drawn from these examples is that our desire to be accepted as persons seems to conflict sometimes with the roles which we fulfil and we are tempted from time to time to try to eliminate this conflict by denying the role instead of struggling to contain both role and personal identity. Examples may easily be found of teachers 'speaking as your head of department' who feel the need temporarily to submerge a personal identity in order to assert authority. Perhaps the importance of this digression is

that the denial of the reality of organisational hierarchy can be a denial of the tasks of the institution. If such a denial is made in the interests of harmonious relations, it assumes that harmonious relations are incompatible with a recognition of different levels of responsibility.

The Deputy Head and Senior Master/Mistress

In any organisation there is obvious value in designating a deputy to replace the person in whom ultimate power and responsibility are vested. There is likely to be confusion and a frustrating absence of decision in emergencies if members of an institution are unsure to whom they should refer in the absence of the head or principal. The office of deputy is therefore specifically provided for in salary arrangements for maintained schools in group 3 and above. The salary regulations do not specify the sex of the deputy head. They do however provide for the appointment in a mixed school of group 7 and above of a senior teacher of the opposite sex from the deputy and remunerated on the same scale as the deputy. This latter provision ensures in practice that both sexes are represented in the two most senior posts of a mixed school. Few would deny the responsibility of any educational establishment not only to be free of sex discrimination in senior appointments but also to demonstrate the equal capacity of men and women to fulfil top leadership roles. This obligatory impartiality arises in practice from the unfortunate dearth of women applicants for senior posts and the likelihood that, unless certain posts were reserved for women, they would be squeezed out by an overwhelming preponderance of men applicants. I have asserted the view that this obligation to fill the top two appointments with one man and one woman is wholly desirable in order to demonstrate the equality of the sexes.

In practice its purpose appears to be widely misunderstood and woefully abused. It seems to be supposed that the purpose of the provision is to ensure for schools the complementary but different professional contributions which men and women are alleged to make to teaching. While it may be true that biological influences and environmental expectations condition the personalities of men and women to certain contrasting responses, it cannot be educationally sound to reinforce these processes by institutional role expectations. Job specifications of deputy heads and senior masters/mistresses may unwittingly present stereotyped views of sex-linked roles and so limit rather than enlarge the scope of the job holders as well as the expectations of boys and girls about their own futures. One should be wary of the view that women deputy heads or senior mistresses are mother figures particularly equipped by nature to dispense hospitality, aspirins and sticking plasters, to arrange flowers in the school entrance hall and to return lost property. Similarly a man deputy head or senior master who is lumbered with the control of discipline, attendance, punctuality, detention supervision and fire practices may be being unfairly used to carry an image of a punishing, stern and controlling father figure. The schools which perpetuate these stereotypes are probably not unaware of the unfortunate consequences in the homes of their pupils when mothers confess 'of course I can't do anything with my son now that he is taller than me so I tell him "Just you wait until your father comes home—you won't half catch it!" Nevertheless we frequently appear to be accomplices in teaching the next generation to relate to their offspring in the same way.

Besides the sex-linked stereotypes often encountered in these two roles, deputy heads and senior masters or mistresses often suffer from the comparative triviality of the tasks allotted to them. Succeeding Burnham reports have specified the appointment of deputy heads and second master/mistresses but have offered no advice about what the holders of these appointments actually do. It seems as if the titles of these appointments have had a hypnotic effect and been widely accepted as descriptions of the jobs themselves. It may be justifiable that advertisements often fail to give any indication of what the deputy head or senior 'M' will be expected to do. When the job descriptions are forwarded to applicants with the application forms, those which I have seen generally list a number of unrelated and relatively routine tasks scarcely appropriate for the two most experienced and highly qualified teachers on the staff of a secondary school. Along with quite taxing tasks like the time-table and arrangements for public examinations, one finds items like 'contract transport', 'supervision of cloakrooms and toilets', 'dinner places' and 'attendance registers'. One gains the impression that the senior man and woman often get burdened with the tasks which the head does not want to do and which he cannot find anyone else prepared to do.

Is it sometimes thought that the title of deputy head is self explanatory and that deputising for the head is performing routine tasks on his behalf? A governor once asked an applicant for a deputy headship why he wanted to be a head's dogsbody. Deputising in a real sense—that is acting in the capacity of head during the head's absence—occurs comparatively rarely unless a head suffers from frequently recurrent attacks of ill-health. It is an essential role but, in this narrow 'substitution' sense, it is a part-time job. It is therefore essential to work out in cooperation with the job holder a coherent role which will enable this most experienced staff member to make an appropriate and satisfying contribution to the school's educational task. Some suggestions of possible ways in which the most senior roles might be devised were made under the heading of 'The staff cabinet, council or committee'.

It is probably inevitable that it is the 'deputy headship' or 'senior master/mistress-ship' which earns the special salary scale. It is unfortunate however that, as a result, such posts tend to be advertised in these terms and often exclusively in these terms. Consequently attention is focused upon the 'substitution' aspect of the deputy head role and upon the 'senior representative of the appropriate sex' aspect of the senior master/mistress role. We do not advertise for 'Scale 4 or Scale 5 Teachers' and then mention as an afterthought that they will be expected to be housemasters or run mathematics departments. We might try to get into the habit of advertising for a 'Director of personal, social and careers education' or a 'Director of examinations, assessments and reports' and adding that one post will involve the duties and salary of deputy head and the other those of senior master/mistress (that is, of First and Second Deputies.)

Pastoral Care

The need for a number of experienced teachers to be given special responsibility in large schools for the total growth and development of a manageable number of pupils is widely accepted. These teachers

are in practice entrusted, within the general policy of the school, with the kind of supervisory role in respect of their pupils which is normally exercised by the head of a smaller school. The term 'pastoral care' is in danger of presenting this role as one predominantly, if not exclusively, concerned with welfare. Although house or year staff must from time to time be both demanding and punishing, there is perhaps a concealed tendency for such teachers to feel they are stepping out of role when they set standards and punish offenders. They may also feel that when they are demanding and rigorous with pupils, they are failing to fulfil the expectations which others have of them. The myth can grow that pastoral staff alone provide a 'home' for pupils—a place where they are valued as people. This is dangerous if the conclusion is drawn that pupils are not valued by subject teachers in the classroom. The term 'house' probably contributes to the illusion that, in that setting, a pupil is somehow safer and more cared for. The housemaster who said he had applied for his appointment because he loved children was certainly the victim of this misunderstanding.

There is a real possibility of a gulf developing between heads of department and pastoral staff if this misunderstanding is not challenged whenever it is detected. Such a gulf is all the more likely to develop if the head holds regular meetings for pastoral staff separately from meetings for heads of departments. The agenda for such separate meetings are not easy to draw up satisfactorily. Pastoral staff on the one hand may feel excluded from curricular matters which concern them. On the other hand if such matters as options and examination entry policy are debated by pastoral staff—and these questions closely relate to the pupils in their care—then heads of departments are likely to feel that they should be allowed a voice too. Heads of departments are also acutely involved in other items which might seem preeminently pastoral subjects. They may justifiably feel aggrieved at not being consulted about the relationship, disciplinary or emotional problems of pupils following courses provided by their departments.

While large schools need pastoral staff as much as they need heads of departments, everything possible should be done to unite the senior staff members in both roles. There are already influences and expectations which operate all too powerfully to divide them.

'Vertical or Horizontal'?

This is not the place to debate the vexed question of whether a house system ('vertical') is preferable to a year system ('horizontal'). Familiarity with one system or the other often seems to make house staff or year staff argue passionately for the roles they know. In one school, house staff can defend the valuable influence of responsible seniors upon juniors as if there were no irresponsible seniors to exert the opposite sort of influence. In another school, year staff may advance the natural affinity of children in the same year group for each other's company without recognising that adolescent girls begin their interest in boys with those of a year group or two senior to them.

Rather than pursue this controversy, it may be important to note that the year system brings pastoral staff more closely into responsible contact with curricular questions since curricular patterns tend to apply to pupils of the same age and rarely provide studies for children from more than one year group. The year system may therefore alleviate

the tendency towards a 'pastoral/curricular split' in a school. Since house systems divide year groups, house staff are unable to make many important curricular decisions. Such decisions (for instance the transfer of pupils from one set or band to another, or the choice of optional subjects or courses) affect pupils in houses other than their own. To meet this need schools have increasingly appointed 'Curriculum Coordinators', 'Directors of studies' or heads of lower, middle and upper schools. It is necessary to be aware that such appointments push house staff even more plainly out of curricular questions. There is consequently an even greater need to beware of the increased power of those influences which falsely fix the identity of teachers as either 'carers' or 'demanders'.

Heads of Departments

The appointment of Heads of departments is the traditional and accepted way of ensuring that, within the area of each subject on the curriculum, there is a senior teacher responsible for planning the course and coordinating the activities of his colleagues. To the young teacher whose daily life revolves more around the classes he teaches than in other relationships in school, the influence of his head of department is perhaps the most important single factor. The decisions of his head of department determine to a large extent what children he teaches, what he teaches them and even largely the methods and books he must use. Heads of schools have an important responsibility to try by every means to encourage heads of department to provide regular formal consultative procedures by which junior staff can make their needs and views known. If there is marked reluctance in the departmental relationships to offer or take advantage of consultation, it is possible that the relationships of the head and his senior colleagues do not appear to involve genuine interchange. Heads of departments may be heard to claim that they would be only too ready to consult and their colleagues only too ready to attend meetings if only a timetable period were provided for this purpose. This may well be true. It is also probable that no amount of machinery and exhortation will bring about consultation inside departments if there is an absence of confidence that in the general life of the school everyone's opinion is valued and heeded and is capable of affecting policy.

There is another quite different aspect of departmental responsibilities which it may be helpful to examine. This is the threat which curricular innovation presents to teachers in their fundamental concepts of themselves and of the contribution they feel they are expected to make. Threats to anything as basic as our very identities and our accustomed roles are among the most potent sources of passionate defensive or aggressive feelings of which human beings are capable. These feelings are none the less powerful in their effects upon attitudes and conduct because we are frequently unaware of the true cause of their arousal.

Teachers are so accustomed to the fact that they are, as persons, closely identified with a school 'subject', that they take it for granted and often fail to recognise how dependent they become upon the protection which their specialism affords. Preparation for teaching starts with the selection of a subject either for a university degree course or as a main subject in a college of education course. Posts are advertised by subjects. (*The Times Educational Supplement* index of

advertisements has a section headed—'by subject classification'.) Appointments are confirmed as 'assistant for mathematics'. Colleagues engaged in teaching the same subject may be the ones a new teacher meets most often. In consultation with parents and in conversation with colleagues one is accustomed to speak 'as a historian', 'scientist' or 'as a teacher of English'. Thus mathematics (or geography or art, or whatever a teacher's expertise may be) imperceptibly becomes virtually inseparable from his personality. Is it any wonder that interference of any kind with this subject is acutely and painfully felt as touching very sensitive areas?

Curriculum innovation is interference with the scope or status of subjects to which teachers are accustomed and on which they have become reliant. Boundaries which used to separate one from the other become blurred. An historian—particularly the head of a history department—is likely to suffer a sense of personal loss when aspects of his specialism are embodied in new courses in citizenship, British Constitution, social studies, humanities, ancient history and the like. A geographer—particularly the head of a geography department—may feel personally overwhelmed by pressures from all around him to include in his courses some understanding of economics, commerce, archaeology, rural studies, statistics, the arts, physical science and other subjects previously deemed quite separate.

The tensions which may be engendered by these feelings often produce resistance to change. Because the source of the tension is not understood the resistance is likely to be justified by some on irrelevant grounds and condemned by others as evidence of a reactionary personality. Neither response is likely to be helpful. The feelings are natural but must be understood and accepted before the staff of a school can attempt to handle them and use them constructively.

The School and in-service training

Whatever may turn out to be the changes in the education and professional preparation of teachers following the publication of the James Report, it is clear that the schools are bound themselves to play an increasingly important part in this work. It is only in the schools that theories and assumptions can be tested out fully in practical experience and only there that the evidence can be gathered for the formulation of new theories. The schools already have a responsibility for the initial professional experience of student teachers and this responsibility must be more officially recognised and provided for. Whether or not an induction year takes the place of the probationary year, it is now surely accepted that during this period the schools have a crucial task to perform. Throughout the first three or four years of a teacher's career, it remains a vitally important duty for schools to ensure the continued learning and developing experience of their younger staff. In fact unless this concern continues for all teachers of any age, we are assuming that early training can so perfect a teacher's skills and understanding that he will remain completely adapted to his task however much that task may change in response to the changes of society.

The management of a school must obviously find ways of discharging this responsibility to offer opportunities to its staff to develop and grow. Three aspects of this question may be worth mentioning. First,

the consultative procedures must be real. Effective participation which enables teachers to influence decisions also helps to ensure that they are well informed and aware of the issues. Secondly, the head (or a top management colleague) must devote time to the initiation of new members of staff, to discovering and utilising their particular skills and interests and to encouraging them to take advantage of courses of study. The same senior staff member may well be responsible for similar work with student teachers. At the same time he may be responsible for advising upon the future career needs and perhaps promotion inside the school of more experienced teachers. Thirdly, the management structure of a school might well include a trainee level of responsibility. Such a grade of appointment as assistants to senior staff (Burnham Scale 2 perhaps) could at one and the same time offer teachers in their third or fourth year of teaching some insight into the tasks of more experienced teachers as well as relieving those senior staff of some of the routine administrative aspects of the roles they discharge.

Much of this article may appear to have called in question certain assumptions about how schools should be staffed. If however the conclusion were drawn that what is being advocated is immediate and sweeping change a wrong impression would have been conveyed. Change by itself, unaccompanied by understanding of the interaction of persons and the roles they hold, can make a school less effective rather than more. Perhaps the first essential is increased opportunities for heads and senior teachers to develop an understanding of the influence of roles and relationships upon the task of the school so that, in their turn, they may assist their colleagues, with outside help if necessary, to a similar understanding. Without such understanding much of the drive which needs to be harnessed to the task of adaptation to changing requirements, may be dissipated into unproductive channels.

Methods of Communication in the School

W. M. DUTTON*

Many heads of schools would admit that they look back to a golden age when they knew everybody and everything in their school. Communications then meant little more than having a word with X or Y in corridor or staffroom, announcements in assembly and via form teachers, with a staff meeting once a term to keep people informed on larger issues.

Many would maintain that only the increase in the size of schools had led to the current concern for communications up, down and sideways. It is true that a bigger establishment necessitates more delegation of function and the much more difficult and painful business of identification and definition of function. Every delegation means another link

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* This article stems from the observation of schools and discussions with heads, staff and administrators in which a group of HM Inspectors working in Hampshire were recently involved.

in the chain and another channel of communications, but may it not be true that this process merely underlined the need for changes which followed as much from increased complexity as from size itself? If the existence of walls and barriers between classroom and classroom, between subject and subject, between school and school, has been questioned and reduced, so the growth of a more specialist approach to such things as careers guidance, the use of resources (including books in the library and many others) have gradually been accepted as a desirable development towards professionalism and away from a more or less inspired amateurism. At its best this was very good but more often led to overwork, as well as the unavoidable neglect of one function or another. Established practices, about which no one thought very much, could become blatantly inappropriate in a larger setting.

Communication in the school can be looked at in many ways, from the purely mechanical to the philosophical. Basically there are only two questions to be answered. What is to be communicated? How can it best be done? *What* arises from three needs, the administrative, the pastoral and the academic, though there is seldom a rigid distinction between them. With a few exceptions—when for example we are summoned by bells—the answer to *how* is either the written or the spoken word. The need can be ephemeral or more lasting and the aim to some extent determines the means. Not completely because the resources may be inadequate. They certainly vary from school to school. In only one matter is there no room for doubt or choice. If the place is on fire there is, or should be, no doubt about the aims and methods, and expense in ensuring effective means of warning and escape is, quite rightly, not questioned.

Beyond this point, however, circumstances vary, often in ways outside the control of those immediately involved in them, sometimes as a result of choice.

Most schools can produce a diagram showing all the people, places and groups which need to be in communication with each other. The pattern and the terminology will vary according to the size and the academic and pastoral organisation of the school and special cases produce special patterns. Such diagrams, however, seldom show the means used to pass information or exchange ideas. This is right because nobody builds his school ethos round a loud hailer. It is the links that matter though the means may change. It may nevertheless be felt that it is better to do some things by telephone, some by written notice or letter and some by meetings. What follows here is a number of thoughts and opinions relating to both means and objectives.

Staff Communications

In some schools contacts are ensured by an insistence that all staff come to the staffroom ten minutes before the beginning of school and/or always use the main staffroom at break or at dinner time when the personal pigeon-hole, or better the tray, is emptied. The divisive effect of several different staffrooms can be unfortunate but difficult to overcome in large or scattered premises. The problem of keeping part-time teachers adequately informed is one that cannot be overlooked. The special needs of probationers can sometimes warrant special provision. The full-scale staff meeting is a method seldom used nowadays as an instrument of policy formation. It is more frequently

a time for exposition and information. A handbook for staff use can be especially valuable if it is in looseleaf form and kept up to date with dated amendments.

The chain of communication can be academic and pastoral and the major involvement of the individual members of staff may be in either or both. As a member of a department the teacher will take part in subject policy discussion which will in turn be reflected in the views of the head of department at a 'cabinet' meeting and probably passed to the headmaster in the form of a minute of the meeting. In various groupings all members of staff with larger responsibilities will meet together, usually with the head, and it is at this point that school policy is shaped or influenced. It can matter very much at this point how large the gathering is and who and which interests may not be directly represented if the size is to be restricted. The pattern of meetings may not provide for discussion of policy between those with major pastoral responsibility and the heads of departments, which is a pity. At a lower level, if it can be arranged that the teacher responsible for the pastoral care of a group of pupils teaches his group for at least a few periods a week, then the link between pastoral and academic function is made more real. In a horizontal organisation this should be possible for the first one or two years, although complications of setting and options make it unlikely further up the school. In a vertical organisation this is much more difficult to achieve, even in the first years, since each house group will contain a spread of ability and unless teaching in mixed-ability classes is adopted the pastoral groups will not generally be the teaching groups. Pupils from one pastoral unit will thus be taught by a wide variety of teachers so the group tutor needs to be in active communication with all of them if he is truly to care for his charges. Some vertically organised schools even have mixed age tutor groups so the communications problem for group tutors is enlarged yet further. There is no possibility at all of a tutor teaching his group.

Pupil Communications

By tradition notice boards and the morning assembly of the whole school are the principal means of communicating information to pupils. Many, however, dislike the use of the assembly for any other purpose than the statutory one. Moreover meetings of the whole school are often physically impossible.

Notice boards may contain too much and be badly organised so that a law of diminishing returns begins to operate and the need arises for someone to be responsible for policy not merely for its implementation. In many schools the deputy head is in the best position to see that out of date material is weeded out. At the other end of the scale it seems an admission of defeat to keep notices to the minimum on the grounds that they may be torn down or defaced. A main notice board in or near the entrance hall or at some focal point, can become recognised as the place to pass several times a day to see what is new.

Meetings of pupils and between pupils and staff arise readily from the arrangements required for social welfare, pastoral care, and the administration of all manner of school activities. There is an increasing tendency for pupils to organise clubs, societies, sport, drama and community service for themselves and in this way much may be learned about the nature of and need for good communication.

Pupils are also aware that new means of communication are coming in to use within the teaching process itself. Already a number of schools have a computer link and it would be surprising if this development did not grow. The concept of resource centres also means that new communication links are going to be required, for instance between a school's centre and its subject departments and between the school's centre and a possible regional resource bank.

External Links

Contacts between school and home are in some cases quite clearly more fruitful and successful than in others, though it is extremely difficult to say why. One comment might however be made—that those schools have the best relationship in this respect which take the most trouble over communication. This applies before the child comes to the school, at the time of option and career choices and to interviews as well as to the usual round of social functions. It is no longer axiomatic that any and every link with the school must be made via the headmaster. Many schools now prefer to encourage parents to regard the House or Year Tutor as the first point of contact.

In the lives of many families to make an appointment is a formidable matter and both pupil and school may lose if the very parents the school might most wish to see are too shy to come forward. The open door policy is to some extent the answer, though it is only sensible to restrict the hours when parents are welcome unannounced. General information to parents is often provided in the form of a prospectus. If so, it should be as glossy and attractive as can be afforded.

Where there is dual day and evening use of premises, successful communication between the users is vital. It is well to establish which matters are subject to formal and permanent agreement and which can be left to informal consultation. Examples of the former might be largely the concern of the caretaker, but not always. Dual use is increasingly regarded as a sensible use of resources. It is all the more important to ensure that it does not founder on the elementary courtesies, which can easily fail for lack of proper communications.

Good examples of practice are seen. For example the year tutors of the receiving secondary school visit the feeder schools to get first-hand information about their future charges. In many cases the pupils themselves pay a visit to meet people and to be shown round. Sometimes they can be told which teaching and tutor groups they will be in.

In areas of reorganisation subject and curriculum working parties may meet to discuss for example the choice of foreign language or the mathematics course to be followed. The importance of links between 'feeder schools' and secondary school, sixth form college or FE needs no emphasising and is recognised. Yet there is usually a long way to go, after administrative and general links have been forged, before there is much real consultation at subject level.

Links between schools and the educational welfare officer, with the medical officer and with the careers advisory officer are well established and call for little comment except, how fortunate are those schools which can provide fully suitable rooms for these officers.

There are occasions when a proper concern for confidentiality may prejudice the best pastoral care. This is often the case with medical

records and information about individuals or families which comes to the notice of house tutor or counsellor. The problem is to ensure that the information is available to those who may need it, but to them only. It is an inescapable problem to which there is no easy answer. One system seen was a form of code signal which gave no information at all but simply indicated on a general record that there was more here than could be communicated on paper and that reference back would be useful. It can consist of no more than a pencilled tick in a box and is used at transfer from one school to another. To rely solely on the memory of members of staff can leave an unhappy blank, when for example, a testimonial has to be written after a pupil has left.

Mechanical and Electronic Aids

In a new school, or in a situation where communication systems in an existing school are under consideration, the choice and comparative cost of various methods deserve more detailed attention than they usually get. Information can be obtained from the Cost Investigation Unit, Department of Education and Science.

There is for example much we can learn about telephone links and exchanges. It may not be generally known that the Post Office will give full training to office staff who may have to operate a switchboard. The different types of manual and automatic exchanges offer more scope than is often realised. Advice is available from area telephone managers and there is a schools' research unit in the Post Office at Grand Buildings, Trafalgar Square.

The number of outside telephone lines is less important than internal links and whether these can be established without wasting manpower on a manual switchboard. There can be no formula, but one school visited which had over 700 pupils, and one outside line with extensions only to the head and his secretary and to the kitchen, was clearly under-provided. A school which is in widely scattered blocks needs extra consideration. There can be few schools nowadays which can function efficiently with less than two outside lines. It is a very defensible point of view that the needs of kitchen and caretaker should be considered apart from this.

Many schools like to have a coin-box for the private use of staff and/or pupils. Whether or not one is provided for pupils is not necessarily a purely financial matter. Easy access to a telephone and encouragement in the responsible use of it, especially in schools where there are many older pupils, can be regarded as a part of the educational background.

In the world of modern business the telephone is increasingly used instead of the written letter. The reply and consequent action come more quickly and there is a saving in expensive office staff. For some purposes schools do well to adopt this practice, although it has, of course, the disadvantage that no record is automatically kept. Nevertheless schools are often a long way behind what is regarded as normal provision in business, public or even private life today. It is perhaps worth adding however that the most useful telephone call can be a very brief one.

The bleeper perhaps deserves mention. This is the pocket or clip-on electronic device used to summon doctors in some hospitals. In a school it would be issued only to those members of the hierarchy who may be wanted quickly. One version produces a soft summons to

contact the school office via the nearest telephone extension and does not establish a short-wave, two-way radio communication. A later model can relay the voice. It is personal only to the wearer.

A public address system offers a quick, easy way of passing information and instructions. The objection that it is impersonal is countered by the example of ship's cruises when it is used effectively and without offence.

The chief objections to it which are put forward are:

- it can encourage lack of forethought because what could have been made known at 9.00 am can be promulgated at any time;
- it reinforces in an undesirable way the variety of sounds to which we in the modern world are all subjected, much of which we have to learn to ignore;
- thus saturation point and ineffectiveness can soon be reached;
- because of its intrusive nature its use must be limited to certain times of day.

The School Office

The role of secretarial and clerical support in the school is crucial. It helps not only the head but all those in senior posts of responsibility. The production or duplication of teaching materials too can be of enormous supporting help to subject teachers. The practice of allocating a number of points which may be used to employ an additional secretary, a technician, a librarian, a bursar or whatever may be most needed is basically a good one and Hampshire has initiated the phased introduction of this policy.

It is all the more regrettable that the siting, layout and equipment of the school office so often fail in both efficiency and comfort. Where this is so it hinders the vital process of communication between all those people inside and outside the school who depend on its help and service. A visitor to the school often finds on arrival that there is no indication of the whereabouts of the office. If one part of the office and one of its staff can be specially designated as 'reception', a focal point for all enquiries is provided which minimises the interruption of normal and sometimes confidential office work.

The Head

At the centre of it all is the head. Much of the pattern of communication in the school will have been inherited and some of it cannot easily be changed because tradition or geography or simply lack of money may stand in the way. But in the end the 'feel' of the communications in the school emanates from the head. The larger and more complex the school the more difficult it is for heads to achieve what they all desire, that is the maximum personal contact with the maximum number of members of the school. If more and better provision of aids to communication can be put at their disposal the more they can be freed from trivia and the more time they will have to carry out their true functions.

One may, of course, question how far speed and efficiency are the sole criteria. A head may choose sometimes to go on errands himself, an apparently inefficient use of his time, because he knows this may bring

him into first-hand contact with things going on in his school which he might otherwise miss.

Very few schools indeed would claim to have all they need, but not in all is enough thought given to the establishment of the best pattern with the means and money available.

Measuring 'School Climate'

D. S. FINLAYSON

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The concept of 'social climate' is frequently employed in educational discourse. Parents, teachers and visitors to schools become aware of the 'tone of the school' soon after entering it. They intuitively gain impressions from a number of cues—the way the pupils behave towards each other, the way pupils answer queries addressed to them, the way pupils move about the school and how they conduct themselves in the playground, the way teachers address the pupils, the way visitors are received, to name only a few.

While it is possible to defend the 'reality' of such intuitions, it is much more difficult to define the concept to which they refer. In consequence, any attempt to measure such a thing as 'social climate' presents difficulties. Yet the necessity to attempt to do so becomes more important as the social pressures exerted on schools are requiring their staffs to consider many aspects of their role in addition to their traditional one of equipping their pupils with basic skills of an academic and non-academic nature. The mental health of pupils and the degree to which their emotional and social development is fostered in school is being increasingly stressed. At the staff level, the way in which authority is exercised, and the way in which the staff are adapting to social pressures, are becoming matters of increasing concern. For these reasons, some quantifiable information related to those areas of concern would be useful.

The task of devising measures which might provide information of this kind constituted one aspect of the Comprehensive Schools Feasibility Study.* Time and research resources were important constraints in that study, and it was therefore necessary to adopt a procedure that would not be too demanding in terms of either. Hence the questionnaire method, as employed by Halpin and Croft† in primary schools in America, was used. This utilized the perceptions of teachers of some aspects of the patterns of social interaction occurring

* The purpose of this study was to design a number of instruments of a cognitive, affective and social nature which might be used in any subsequent study of comprehensive schools. The late Professor F. W. Warburton was responsible for the cognitive and affective measures, while the school measures were produced by a team composed of the present author, Dr. Olive Banks, now in the Department of Sociology at Leicester University and Mr J. L. Loughran. The 'instruments' mentioned in this article are available to research workers from the NFER, The Mere, Slough, Bucks.

† Halpin, A. W. and Croft, D. B. (1963) *Organisational Climate of Schools* Midwest Admin. Center, Univ. of Chicago.

amongst members of staffs in schools and between the head and his staff to quantify the organisational climate of their schools. At the secondary stage, the modes of administration and decision-making are such integral parts of the organizational climate that they would require to be included. Also, in view of the structural complexity of secondary schools, it would seem useful to include at least the behaviour of heads of departments in any assessment of organizational climate.

It could also be maintained that the organisational climate of a school is not the same as its over-all social climate. Two factors which seem fundamental in the assessment of that climate are firstly the behaviour of pupils amongst themselves and the interactions between pupils and teachers, and secondly the communication which takes place between the school and the community in which it is set. Accordingly it was felt necessary to devote some attention to these areas.

With these considerations in mind, items appropriate to all the foregoing aspects of behaviour in schools were written and presented in four separate booklets in order to obtain some indication of:

1. The perceptions of pupils of the behaviour of other pupils and of their teachers
2. The perceptions of teachers of some aspects of their colleagues' behaviour
3. The teachers' perceptions of the behaviour of heads of departments
4. The teachers' perceptions of the behaviour of the head.

Prior to administering the items to a sample of pupils and teachers drawn from ten comprehensive schools of various size, locations and traditions, the items were submitted to the major teacher professional organisation to obtain their *nihil obstat*.

In the schools, both pupils and teachers were assured of the absolute confidentiality of their responses. These were made in terms of a five point scale. For each item, they were asked to indicate whether they strongly agreed, agreed, were uncertain, disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement of behaviour as a description of what takes place in their school. In order that the information derived from the responses of pupils and teachers to these items could be handled more readily, the items were grouped into scales by factorial analysis, a statistical procedure designed to structure the responses according to the pattern of relationships which emerged from the responses. The responses of teachers and pupils to items belonging to any scale were then added so that a score for each teacher and each pupil for each of their respective scales could be derived. The average score on each scale was then taken as the quantified perception of the sample of teachers and pupils of their school.

Description of the Scales

The scales on each of the questionnaires are described briefly below, and an example of an item from each scale is also given.

I. Pupil Questionnaire

Four factors emerged from the list of items, and the scales were interpreted as shown:

Pupil Behaviour Scales

Emotional Tone refers to behaviour which indicates the degree to

which pupils perceive their peers deriving social and emotional satisfaction from participation in school activities.
e.g. Pupils think a lot of this school.

Task Orientation refers to behaviour which indicates the degree to which the pupils perceive their peers to have accepted the tasks set them by the school and to be applying themselves to those tasks.
e.g. Pupils work here only because they have to.

Teacher Behaviour Scales
Concern refers to behaviour indicative of the degree to which pupils perceive their teachers to be sensitive to the individual needs of pupils. Both task and social/emotional needs are included.
e.g. Teachers go out of their way to help you.

Social Control refers to behaviour indicative of the degree to which pupils perceive their teachers to impose their expectations on pupils and to be required to exercise power in an attempt to secure compliance.
e.g. Teachers soon lose their tempers here.
These scales describing the behaviour of pupils and teachers can be categorized according to whether they refer to the satisfaction of social and emotional needs and the nature of the social control exercised in the group.

	Behaviour of	
	Pupils	Teachers
Social and emotional needs	Emotional tone	Concern
Exercise of authority	Task orientation	Social Control

Fig. 1 Perceptions of Pupils

II. Teacher Group Behaviour Scales
Seven factors were derived from the items on this instrument, the interpretation of them being:
Teacher Interaction Scales
Identification refers to behaviour which reflects work satisfaction and involvement with the school.
e.g. Teachers here are exceptionally loyal to the school.

Familiarity refers to behaviour indicative of staff willingness to establish and maintain close, satisfying relationships with their colleagues.
e.g. Teachers invite other members of staff to visit them at home.

Social Disintegration refers to behaviour indicative of disunity amongst the staff and which is reflected in fragmentation into 'cliques'.
e.g. Teachers get together in small select groups.

Obstruction refers to teachers' feelings that the school does not offer them sufficient support with their work. References to equipment, clerical and timetable matters are included.
e.g. It is extremely difficult to get a timetable change made, even a temporary one.

Teacher/Community Interaction Scales

Teacher Professional Communication refers to the amount of contact the staff are perceived to have with other teachers in professional situations, e.g. meetings, visiting, in-service training, etc.

e.g. Teachers from this school regularly attend meetings of teachers from the district for various purposes.

Teacher/Community Communication refers to the amount of community contact the staff are perceived to have with people and organisations who would be important for individual pupils, e.g. parents, school welfare officers, etc.

e.g. The police/probation service works closely with teachers in following up pupils who have been in court.

Teacher/Parent Communication refers to behaviour indicative of the extent to which the school actively seeks to give information about pupils and the school to parents.

e.g. Parents and teachers meet regularly at social functions in the school.

III. Head of Department Behaviour Scales

Four factors were derived from the items on this questionnaire:

Problem Orientation refers to behaviour which actively seeks to move the organisation, and to ancitipate problems rather than deal with them only when circumstances force action.

e.g. The head of department defines teacher duties and responsibilities clearly.

Personal and Professional Concern for Staff refers to behaviour which shows a willingness to treat staff as human beings and to encourage their participation in the school and educational developments.

e.g. The head of department helps teachers settle minor differences.

Bureaucratic Orientation refers to behaviour which is highly directive towards junior staff and which limits 'feed-back' from them.

e.g. The head of department never admits when he had made a mistake.

Friendliness refers to the behaviour indicative of easy social relationships with other members of staff.

e.g. The head of department makes you feel inferior.

IV. Head Behaviour Scales

Six factors emerged from the set of items on this questionnaire. These were interpreted as:

Awareness refers to behaviour indicative of sensitivity to problems and awareness of what is going on in the school.

e.g. The head really knows what is going on.

Professional concern for Staff refers to behaviour indicative of interest in the professional development of the staff.

e.g. The head tries to assist you to further any educational interests you may have, e.g. going on courses, making special visits.

Personal concern for Staff refers to behaviour which shows a willingness to treat members of staff as individuals and to become involved in their personal welfare.

e.g. The head will make allowances for a teacher who has personal problems.

Bureaucratic Orientation refers to behaviour which is highly directive towards junior staff and which limits 'feed-back' from them.

e.g. The head sees all school problems from only one point of view.

Openness refers to behaviour which reflects the head's willingness to encourage staff involvement in policy-making by seeking information and advice from them.
e.g. The head discusses the aims of the school with the staff.

Friendliness refers to behaviour indicative of easy social relationships with other members of staff.
e.g. The head puts you at your ease when you speak to him.

There is, however, some overlap at the item level between Professional Concern and Personal Concern. Overlap also exists between items in the Awareness, Bureaucratic Orientation and Openness scales, all of them being concerned with administrative behaviour of one kind or another. It may be that these scales reflect different facets of the administrative style of the head.

The scales derived from the three teachers' questionnaires are shown in Figure 2, which is structured similarly to that for the pupils' questionnaires.

	Teachers	Heads of Departments	Heads
Social and emotional needs	Identification Familiarity	Problem Orientation Personal and Professional Concern	Awareness Personal concern Professional concern
Exercise of authority	Social Disintegration Obstruction	Bureaucratic orientation Friendliness	Bureaucratic orientation Friendliness
Areas of special interest in secondary schools	Teacher Professional Communication Teacher/Community Communication Teacher/Parent Communication		Openness

Fig. 2 Teacher Perceptions

The reliability of all the scales proved to be adequate for group data, ranging from ·68 to ·91 with the majority above ·8.

A crude form of validation was employed to assess the degree to which the perceptions of pupils and staffs differ between twelve different schools selected on the basis of H.M.I. advice about the kind of factors the scales were designed to quantify. Within this limited but reportedly wide range of schools all the scales except two head of department ones yielded significant differences when the perceptions of the groups of teachers and pupils from the various schools were compared. The magnitude of the differences was considerable. On the pupil scales and those referring to teacher group behaviour and head behaviour they were sufficient to warrant the assumption they could not have occurred by chance with odds beyond one in a thousand.

The use of the scales

The existence of these scales now makes it possible for a considerable amount of quantitative information to be obtained about many aspects of schools. Because of the nature of that information, it seems necessary to be very explicit about some of the many issues which arise in connection with the use of these scales.

The first point to be made is that the information they provide is about the *perceptions* of pupils and teachers of some aspects of the behaviour of their peers and of individuals who exercise formal authority over them. Because these perceptions may be influenced by a number of psychological and social factors it cannot be assumed that the information they produce is a true statement about the actual behaviour to which they refer. It is for further research to determine the extent to which the pupils' and teachers' perceptions do, in fact, correspond to the actual behaviour to which they refer. Apart from the extent to which perceptions correspond to social reality however it can be maintained that the perceptions held by staffs and pupils of their schools are important in their own right. In one sense, their perceptions represent reality for them and the way in which they perceive their schools may well be a crucial factor in determining how they behave in school and hence in influencing the social climate of these organisations.

This point is valid only if the responses that pupils and teachers make to the questionnaires do reflect what they genuinely believe their perceptions to be. Hence the honesty of the reporting of respondents' perceptions as distinct from the question of their veridicality is clearly a matter of great importance in the use of these scales. Any social factors which are likely to influence the reporting of pupils' and teachers' perceptions are therefore important to consider in any use made of the questionnaires. One obvious factor of this kind is the possibility that authority figures with power over pupils and teachers may misuse the information which they are supplying in good faith. Hence it would seem necessary to stress that the responses to these questionnaires must be treated with the utmost confidence. Without such assurances, neither pupils nor staffs are likely to give reliable information. For this reason it would generally be inappropriate for anyone in authority over the staff or pupils involved to seek to use the instruments. Individuals who are independent of the educational authority structure are much more likely to obtain genuine responses. Such a view is in line with current thinking about planned change within organizations in which consultants are considered to have a critical role.* Are schools prepared to follow the lead given by industry in this respect?

Another problem in the use of these scales arises from the fact that there are considerable differences in the way different individuals within the same school perceive the interactional patterns in that school. This suggests that personality and motivational factors may well be important. Some preliminary work on pupils' perceptions (Finlayson, 1972) confirms that this is certainly the case, but much more research is required to identify what those factors are, to investigate to what degree and in what manner they determine school perception, and what the consequences are for the users of the scales.

A further problem concerns the professional interests of teachers. Because all the items in the booklets have been submitted to the various teacher professional organizations it can be said that they contain no material to which these organisations took exception. At the same time, their content refers to matters about which professional feelings are

* Lippitt, R., Watson, Westley, B., Jeanne, *The Dynamics of Planned Change*. (1958) Harcourt Brace and World Inc.

predictably highly sensitive. This point requires great emphasis in view of the growth in the extent to which the educational system is becoming 'open' to examination and the corresponding decline in the willingness to accept educational decisions on the basis of professional authority. When this fact is coupled with the interest of the mass media in educational matters it is clearly of the greatest importance that teachers should be involved in full and frank discussions about the purposes of any administration of the scales. A similar point can be made about pupil involvement.

Interpretation of results

The discussion so far has been concerned to highlight the problems associated with the collection of information derived from the scales. A final point should be made about the way that information is likely to be interpreted. Value judgements are an essential part of educational decision-making because of the dearth of sufficient evidence on the basis of which policy decisions might be made. As well as being essential, however, such judgements can also be dangerous to rational decision making in education when they lead to premature 'closure' of thinking about important educational matters or to distortion of empirical evidence which can be used to support a particular policy or procedure which is held on a value basis.

It seems fitting, therefore, that the dangers of making value judgements about the scores obtained from any school on any of the scales should be given great emphasis. For example a high degree of perceived social control on the part of teachers or a low degree of perceived openness on the part of the head could readily be regarded as 'undesirable' or in some way regrettable. While this may be inevitable, it must be appreciated that it is an empirical question as to what the consequences of a high degree of social control are, and what effects a certain kind of leadership or administrative style has in any particular school. Equally it is an empirical question as to what factors might be associated with such a degree of social control or with any particular administrative style. Hence, an understanding of the scores obtained by any school on any of the scales would appear to require to be seen within the social context of the school as a whole, for the same scores might have different meanings according to circumstances.

These points can be illustrated using a study* done in the academic classes of a traditional grammar school, a grammar–technical school and a comprehensive school with an early version of the pupils' scales, one of which, 'use of authority', contained many of the items in the present social control scale. In these schools the ability of the pupils declined across the schools from grammar through grammar–technical to comprehensive, and the pupils' perception of the degree of authority which the teachers used steadily rose across the schools, with the teachers in the comprehensive being perceived as most autocratic. The pupils in the schools had been divided into successful, achieving-as-expected and unsuccessful groups and while there was little difference in the perception of these groups in the grammar school, in the comprehensive school the degree of authority perceived

* Finlayson, D. S. (1970) *How High and Low Achievers See Teachers' and Pupils' Role Behaviour*. Research in Education 3.

to be exercised by the teachers steadily rose from the unsuccessful through the achieving as expected to the successful group whose score on this scale was the highest of any in the study. This finding could be explained by the words of one of the form teachers of the boys who said 'When you have an examination to get through, you have to push the top people because you have a deadline'. Such a view is probably a reflection of the fact that the comprehensive school received children of relatively low ability, but because it was functioning side by side with traditional grammar schools, the teachers felt obliged to compete with these schools on academic as well as other grounds. In the light of this information about the social context within which the teachers are working any precipitate value judgement about the degree to which the teachers were perceived to exercise social control are thus premature and simplistic.

Further research

On the basis of these observations, it can be concluded that these scales provide a basis on which some quantification of the way in which some patterns of social behaviour in schools are perceived by the pupils and staffs of these schools. Much further research however, is necessary to identify the factors determining such perceptions and the extent to which these perceptions can be regarded as corresponding to social reality. Until such evidence is available, the 'hard data' that they supply might nevertheless be of interest to teachers and researchers concerned with running and understanding the complexities of schools and who are required to make the decisions in the midst of these complexities.

Two illustrations from current research can be given. The first utilized the perceptions of school leavers. Generally, the perceptions of those pupils who were leaving school at the statutory leaving date indicated that they saw their peers as less task orientated and displaying less satisfaction with their participation in school activities, and their teachers as less concerned and exercising more social control than the pupils who intended to stay on beyond the school leaving date. But this tendency was not universal in all the schools. In two of them the relationship between the 'leavers' and the 'stayers' perceptions was contrary to the general trend. From this evidence it is probable that further study of the arrangements made for the 'leavers' in those two schools would be profitable.

The scales might also be useful in providing preliminary data in relation to organizational factors in schools. For example, the perceptions of pupils and teachers could be examined in schools which differ in what are believed to be important organisational features. Pastoral responsibility, for example, can be allocated on a vertical, horizontal or combined basis and the degree of opportunity for social mixing amongst pupils can vary greatly. Decisions about school policies of this kind are of necessity largely intuitive in nature. Comparative data using pupils' and teachers' perceptions could provide some feed-back about the possible consequences of such decisions, but more constructive might be the identification of schools using similar organisational procedures in which the perceptions of the pupils and teachers differed in what were judged to be important ways. Used as a screening device of this kind, the schools which had been identified as of special

interest could then be studied much more intensively. In this way, due regard would be paid to the complexity of learning milieux which schools provide and the focus of attention would be directed away from polemic claims and counter-claims made for various organisational strategies towards the much more difficult problem of developing an understanding of the factors which have an influence on what actually happens when they operate in the way they do.

Associated with any studies of this kind, however, are important political and professional questions relating to the collection, availability and use of whatever information was derived. Some distinction may be necessary between information of a general nature and that referring to particular individuals and schools, and safeguards in relation to the latter may require to be formulated. If the scales are judged to be capable of providing useful data to educationists, then it seems necessary that the appropriate official and professional bodies can resolve the issues which are raised by their use.

A group of HM Inspectors recently carried out a survey of religious education in a number of primary and secondary schools whose pupils were drawn from more than one cultural group. This article outlines the findings.

New Aspects of Religious Education

J. G. GOULDING

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Religious education is an area of the curriculum which can offer to schools some interesting opportunities. When large groups of pupils are from families originating in India, Pakistan or the West Indies there is a challenge to develop new approaches to the subject. In the schools with which this article deals there were large groups of pupils whose religious background was Moslem, Sikh or Hindu, and a number of West Indian children of various Christian denominations. There were some pupils from central and southern Europe, and it was felt at the outset that account should be taken of them in an enquiry of this kind. Most of these pupils belonged to the Roman Catholic church; many were members of local groups which sought to preserve their national identity within that church by attending celebrations of the Mass in their native tongue, and to keep their cultural traditions alive by setting up community centres. Teachers felt, however, that the families of these children had long been settled in this country and that there was no significant difference in their educational needs, except where there happened to be a particular language problem which required special treatment.

It was interesting to note that, apart from the small number of pupils whose families were Jehovah's Witnesses (and these were invariably English families) and the withdrawal of Moslem pupils from assembly in one secondary school, there was no significant amount of withdrawal either from assembly or from religious education lessons. It was made clear that there was a positive desire on the part of Asian parents for their children to participate fully in the life and worship of the school. It seems, however, that these parents assumed that religious education teaching would be descriptive and not a means of induction into the Christian faith. Indian parents and their children were said to be more concerned to get from us than give to us as far as religious education is concerned, and the words were added 'and we are so much the poorer'. It would seem that with so much goodwill, our responsibility for providing thoughtful and considerate religious education is the greater. Teachers remarked in many places upon the sensitivity and feeling for religion among Asian girls, a direct result, no doubt, of their home background. The examination for the CSE allows pupils to make a study of faiths other than Christianity and some schools are taking advantage of this. Girls engaged in a study of Islam complained about the misinterpretation of their faith by some western writers and about faulty translation of the Koran. It was felt that this sort of

interest and awareness could be profitable for all concerned and that there might be an advantage, say, in Christians and Moslems making a study of Hinduism or Buddhism together. In one school, staff had observed the flair Indian girls showed for dance and movement, a traditional form of religious expression in their culture, but had not appreciated that dance, movement and drama provide ways of exploring religious concepts which could form an integral part of a religious education programme. West Indian pupils often have a close link with church and Sunday School, so that their knowledge of bible stories is generally more extensive than that of other pupils.

Content of the Syllabus

With some exceptions the programme of religious education being followed at present consists in secondary schools of a three-year course in some biblical history and theology followed by discussion of social questions and in primary schools the telling of bible stories from the synoptic gospels and the patriarchal period of Jewish history.

None of the agreed syllabuses in operation in the areas visited had been revised since the early 1960s and that revision had followed largely the pattern set by the immediate post-war schemes. Teachers expressed a good deal of dissatisfaction with these syllabuses which they felt inhibited experiment but it was unusual to find many staff in either primary or secondary schools who were very familiar with the contents and philosophy of more recent syllabuses. Copies of these syllabuses had been distributed to schools by one authority. Movement towards these approaches was discernible in a number of schools. Some primary schools had begun to make use of a thematic approach in religious education, one linking it to a generally adopted environmental studies programme, others using a theme for worship which could be followed up by class teachers.

In two secondary schools religious education formed part of integrated studies in the lower school and in one case this had led to interesting work on mythology and religious origins. The religious education department of another secondary school was taking part in an experimental RSLA programme.

Many teachers felt that some knowledge of non-Christian faiths had a place in a religious education programme. This would be particularly relevant in a multi-cultural school but is equally justifiable in all schools. One city junior school arranged for its pupils to exchange visits and dramatic/musical productions with a rural counterpart: thus the latter was able to share in and appreciate the richness and diversity of a multi-cultural community. Some members of staff were beginning to allow for a study of world religions, certain material being introduced in the second, third or fourth year of secondary schools, but with one or two exceptions, the time given to it, which ranged from one period for one faith to a succession of lessons in one term, was not really sufficient to do justice to this area of enquiry.

In the agreed syllabuses of the authorities covered by the survey it is unusual to find any provision for the systematic treatment of material relating to world faiths other than Christianity before the stage of the sixth form. It was not only teachers in secondary schools who felt the need to deal with the subject at an earlier stage than this; many teachers in primary schools did too but were not sure what material

was suitable or how to use it when they had obtained it. It was said that some young Sikh, Moslem and Hindu children were as ignorant and confused about their own faith as some Christian children are about Christianity. This confusion is all the more understandable among children attempting to adjust to another society. It was remarked, for instance, that Asian children always draw white children in their pictures. If children at school learn of only one tradition it is easy for them to have the impression that excellence is to be found only in a white culture. Teachers were, in fact, particularly anxious to discover and absorb material that would help them to discuss with young children the social and religious customs of people of other faiths. They saw this as being advantageous to all children in promoting mutual tolerance and understanding. Some knowledge of the literature, history and traditions of the cultures from which many of our pupils come was thought to be vital for a balanced treatment of thematic work covering the various areas of the curriculum.

One secondary school was suspicious of any treatment of world religions because it was felt that it would lead to a divisiveness the school tried to avoid. For the same reason a primary school saw as its aim the establishing of one community and therefore sought to emphasise what it called 'the humanitarian side of religion'. Some teachers felt that a critical attitude towards mythology might lead to conflict with the teaching of certain Christian and Moslem groups. Of course, many pitfalls are apparent in the use of this material which obviously calls for sensitive handling. It is important to avoid inappropriate comparisons and a treatment of world faiths which might encourage fundamental misunderstanding.

Teaching Aids

Members of staff, particularly in primary schools, showed considerable interest in recent audio-visual, background and resource material, but in fact audio-visual aids were being used to a significant extent in only a few schools, a disappointing feature in view of the increasing number now being made available. One large primary school had lately set up an audio-visual department with a member of staff in charge. Two secondary schools used film, in one case full length feature films on occasion. A primary school encouraged its Asian pupils to dress up and enact an Indian wedding. Some schools were using West Indian folk music to advantage and experiments were going on with Indian music. More use might well be made of costume, tapestry and the art forms generally. One comprehensive school working in two buildings had established a room for RE in each. Good use was being made of resources; teaching of the Old Testament was enriched by the use of a BBC tape about the practices of contemporary Judaism.

It appeared that where in secondary schools the religious education department had the use of a subject base then display facilities were readily available for use and the advantages of the projector and tape recorder were appreciated. The effectiveness of the teaching of a specialist who for one reason or another was peripatetic within his school could be limited.

More thought needs to be given to the help that religious education can get from other subjects in the curriculum. The experience gained by pupils of one secondary school who visited a cathedral city and carried out an enquiry project, carefully arranged by the religious

education and art departments working closely together, had proved to be so valuable that the enterprise is to be repeated and extended.

It was in the area of assembly that drama, music and cross subject links were being exploited to advantage. Some schools made reference there to the religious festivals of world religions and often the teaching of these faiths centred upon this.

Training

Many teachers expressed the desire for in-service training. The headmaster of one primary school had given help to the staff by issuing to them duplicated sheets of information about Asian names, religious festivals and anniversaries. Work is under way in some centres to produce resources for religious education that will be helpful to teachers.

Very little evidence was found of any meetings of teachers from both primary and secondary schools to discuss religious education; but it was agreed that the teaching of religious education from 5–16 should be seen as a developing programme and that teachers from both phases should communicate with each other; in addition staff in the larger primary schools thought that it would be an advantage to have a small committee to co-ordinate the work throughout the school.

HM Inspectors were impressed by the concern of teachers everywhere for the establishing of good personal relationships with the pupils and the awareness that part of religious education lay in forming these relationships and fostering through early experience the growth of concepts such as justice, honesty, truth, forgiveness and love. One infant school expressed this as 'we educate our children by what we are' and 'we teach loving kindness and understanding'.

There was an awareness also of the need for care in the use of religious language; the words of some hymns were seen to pose difficulties and some teachers were at pains to couch bible stories in simple language. Infant teachers had revised the language of selected hymns; others had rejected altogether hymns once used in infant schools, for example, one which began with the words 'The little papoose in a wigwam who lives'. The teacher of religious education needs to be as aware of the linguistic framework in which the children are operating as the teacher of English, because if the language used is not directly relevant to the child, his ability to develop religious concepts is retarded. To Asian children who already face the problems posed by archaisms in the language of mosque and temple, bible archaisms and the vocabulary of Christian theology are additional barriers to understanding. In no school did there appear to be close consultation with the English as a second language specialist to support and consolidate his activity and thereby to render the religious education teaching more effective.

Community Relations

It was clear that many schools saw themselves as being able to contribute a great deal to work in community relations through links with parents and other bodies. HM Inspectors realised that teachers were making extremely valuable contributions to inter-cultural understanding. One headmaster is the chairman of the local Community Relations Council, one headmistress leads an Anglo-Carribean society and a young Hindu teacher is often invited to talk to discussion

groups—to give a few examples. School buildings are used by various organisations in the local community; a Moslem service was held in a school hall; the staff of one school teaches English in Asian homes. The benefit of such work is immeasurable.

Important religious education is taking place in schools through voluntary service to the community and the practical social experience of living together at weekends and during the holidays. Besides the obvious direct value of this work, the experience in personal relationships gained by the young people involved in it, is of the essence of religious education. Head teachers spoke warmly of the mutual understanding that had grown up as a result of pupils from very different backgrounds living together at a Youth Hostel or in camp; the material collected together as a result of these excursions was found to be very useful for subsequent discussion with other pupils.

Summing-up

The multi-cultural school has a positive advantage in the field of the phenomenology of religion since it has access to rich and diverse material reflecting the social and religious customs and practices of people of many faiths. Discussions of topics that arise from this can begin with profit as early as the infant school.

There is much goodwill among pupils and parents, and much evidence of the concern and dedication of teachers; many try to find ways of taking advantage of the opportunities afforded by the multi-cultural school. But there is a need for:

a. In-service training
b. Closer links between primary and secondary schools and between the subject departments of secondary schools
c. More frequent use of a wider range of audio-visual and resource material
d. Attention to the agreed syllabuses to see how far they reflect the aims and methods of current approaches to the subject and provide the kind of assistance that teachers feel they need.

This article is based on a recent survey of provision made by local authority institutes in the W Midlands for the education of adult commonwealth immigrants.

Commonwealth Immigrants in Adult Education

JOAN McDONALD

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Organisers and teachers in adult education are often apparently unwilling to regard their immigrant students as a special category, because their aim is to play down differences rather than to draw attention to them.

Information about nationality or race is not usually entered on enrolment cards. While it is accepted that teachers ought to be familiar with the background of their students, nevertheless it is not always easy without questioning to distinguish between Indian, Pakistani and Sikh, between those who come direct from the Indian sub-continent and those who arrive via Kenya, between those who come to this country early or late in life and those who are born here. Some teachers are reluctant to ask, or find it difficult to elicit personal information tactfully.

However, immigrants do form identifiable social groups with definable educational needs and it would be unreal to ignore these. There are for example questions of recruitment and enrolment, particularly among Asian women. There is the need to consider whether preponderant immigrant numbers in some centres constitute an educational or social problem and if so, how this ought to be dealt with. There is the need to help part-time teachers to deal with students for whom special teaching skills are necessary or who do not fit easily into the accepted pattern of the evening institute. Thus a primary school teacher may not necessarily have the skills for teaching adult illiterates or students who come to English as a second language; equally an elderly teacher of dressmaking may not readily adapt to an influx of boisterous Jamaican women into a class of staid middle class matrons. It is reasonable to suggest that Asians, with their quite separate social, cultural and religious customs, may need not only to learn the English language but also to undergo some sort of induction course into British society; and immigrants from the West Indies, although influenced by European traditions and speaking a language derived from English, have nevertheless been subject to other traditions, cultural and social, which make an immediate settling into the accepted patterns of behaviour in this country unlikely.

The word 'coloured' as a generic term is not irrelevant because the fact of colour, when added to the factors above, affects attitudes on both sides. However, it would be equally unreal not to recognise that some problems relating to immigrant adult education are not peculiar to immigrants. For example, linguistic skills ought perhaps to be seen as part of the wider problem of adult illiteracy and the need to help some immigrant groups, particularly West Indians, to acquire

the expertise necessary for social action in line with the democratic traditions of political self-help acceptable to this country applies equally to other sections of the native community.

Despite the understandable reluctance of many workers in adult education to admit the need or advisability for singling out immigrants for special treatment, these various problems are recognised and it is possible to enquire into them and attempt to find solutions without creating tensions within an institute or centre. For example, special techniques for recruitment and enrolment have been developed by some authorities. The ordinary methods of advertising classes may not have much impact on immigrant groups; most centres advertise language classes in a variety of Asian languages, but notices in any language do not give much information to the illiterate. One adult education organiser extracted a list of immigrant addresses from the Housing Department and knocked on doors. He found that the Housing Department greatly underestimated the number of houses occupied by immigrants, but did not receive encouragement from the inmates. Subsequently he took with him a student who belonged to the community he wished to attract and this method proved more effective, though time consuming.

From four Institutes of Adult Education in Birmingham comprehensive statistics were received relating to the 1971–2 enrolment of immigrant students. These figures, and those produced by other LEAs in the W Midlands and elsewhere, all indicate a large and increasing use of LEA adult education provision by the immigrant population. In the four Birmingham institutes there was a total enrolment of 11,505, of whom 2,909 were immigrants. The table below shows the distribution of this enrolment. The classes chosen by immigrants revealed a wide spread which included various crafts and hobbies, as well as cookery and dressmaking, car maintenance and commercial skills. It was unusual to find immigrants in any sort of Physical Education class.

	Asian		*W. Indian*	
	M.	F.	M.	F.
Language classes	446	78	55	90
Other classes	707	192	355	986
	1153	270	410	1076

Problems of Enrolment

Most immigrant students find their own way to Adult Education centres but a more positive and carefully considered approach is necessary if the Asian woman is to be recruited. In one area of the West Midlands a special day class for Sikh girls was formed at the request of their fathers, but it was not proposed that the wives should attend. During 1971–2 young Sikh mothers were persuaded to attend a class twice a week at a nursery school when they brought their children to the day nursery, but some mothers were withdrawn because the teacher was a man. It is believed that some of the ladies who attended this class did so without telling their husbands. Asian girls are often brought to centres by their fathers and collected afterwards. Even at the more advanced stage of English O-level, centre heads must reassure fathers of the propriety of their daughters attending mixed classes or being taught by a man. Married women

sometimes attend a particular class in the wake of some distinguished person in their community such as a doctor's wife. There are voluntary organisations which are concerned with the education of Asian women in their own homes. The increasing numbers of social workers who attend classes in Asian languages, particularly in Punjabi, may influence pioneer work in this area.

Enrolment sessions bring difficulties. In one West Midland institute it took an entire evening's enrolment session to deal with one Asian woman, who was passed by the part-time centre head to the principal and from the principal to the adult education inspector. The problems of language contribute to this sort of mutual bafflement, but other possibilities are suggested. The individual member of a minority group in an alien situation may easily feel distrust; it also suggested that frequently one representative might come to an institute to ask questions about a variety of classes and fees and then report back to a family or neighbourhood group. This sort of problem seems to be less common among West Indians than among Asians and among Asians it is possibly less common than it was two or three years ago, perhaps because of the growing confidence of immigrants and their familiarity with enrolment procedures. Many adult institutes are accommodated in schools and it is often possible to recruit Asian teachers to attend and assist at enrolment sessions.

Guidance to Students

Difficulties also arise in advising immigrant students about the classes they wish to join. The concept of the class in the minds of organiser or teacher may be completely different from the expectations of the immigrant student, and his motives may differ from the motives of indigenous students joining the same class. For example, male immigrant students usually fail to recognise the distinction between vocational and non-vocational education and they come to practical classes in order to improve their earning capacity. Thus, they do not recognise any difference between a part-time course for electrical technicians at the technical college, and a class in radio and TV at an evening institute, except that the latter is much cheaper and available in the evening. Great pains are taken on enrolment to explain that students who come to radio and TV classes are not getting training for a job and that if this is what they want they should take a course at the local 'tech'. It would be unrealistic not to recognise that most Asians and West Indians come to classes for vocational reasons and that education for leisure or as an end in itself is not a concept which they easily recognise. Not only adults, but a great many Asian schoolboys, attend the 'non-vocational' evening classes for vocational reasons. Many day-time teachers encourage this; they use woodwork and science classes, for example, for doing CSE project work which they have little time to do within the curriculum during school hours.

Many teachers comment on the inability of immigrant students, both male and female, to recognise their own limitations. This was particularly apparent in classes leading to examinations. It was often very difficult to persuade students that their chance of gaining an O-level or RSA qualification was small. One organiser explained his difficulty in persuading West Indian women that efficiency in shorthand and typing was dependent on good written English. The parallel classes in English which he arranged for their benefit were not attended.

Some authorities arrange courses rather than classes for immigrants. Thus students attend possibly three nights a week, and classes on English customs and the British way of life are linked with classes in English language. One institute in Birmingham, reacting to the prevalence of accidents with oil lamps, arranged a short course on 'Safety in the home' for immigrants, but this was not well attended. A similar course on 'The British education system' was also poorly attended.

During a period of explicit hostility to immigrants in the West Midlands many immigrant groups and societies sprang up. These had a short life because, it was surmised, of the lack of expertise in the basic forms and channels of democracy. At the Birmingham Central Institute during 1969–70, six classes were put on at fortnightly intervals with different speakers, to teach committee procedure, the roles of chairman and secretary, some social and group psychology and the methods of handling club subscriptions and finance. These classes attracted students from a wide variety of racial and social background and were repeated in subsequent sessions.

The concentration of immigrant students in some centres was regarded by principals and other workers as a source for concern. For example, the principal of the Central Institute felt that the isolation and segregation of immigrants at one centre produced unwelcome changes in the traditional evening institute pattern and affected relationships between students and staff. The principal of Sparkhill Institute deliberately removed a whole area of language teaching from one centre to another when the immigrant attendance topped 50 per cent because he feared that any further increase of immigrant students might cause European students to look elsewhere. One adult education organiser proposed to move an immigrant teaching centre into another larger institute because he felt that within a Western European educational context the habit of coming and going without much reference to the clock might be corrected.

Teaching Problems

Workers and teachers in adult education are aware of and give serious thought to the problems of teaching immigrants. For example, many recognise the need to distinguish between those who are literate in their own language and come to English as a second language, and those who are not literate in any language. Again a distinction is made between speaking and the ability to read and write. It is recognised that for the West Indian who speaks English in a manner not always recognisable to the English ear, the problem of unlearning might possibly be more difficult than the task of the Asian who comes to the English language without any previous knowledge of it. One principal suggested that the direct method of language teaching might not be suitable to adults who were in practice being subjected to this method all day long at their work. What was needed in class was a more methodical approach for reading, vocabulary and sentence building which would make sense of their language experience during the day. On the other hand, the direct method of teaching based on the kind of language that they would need to understand in their every-day work, is the usual method for factory based classes for Asian men.

There is a fairly general acceptance that classes should be graded according to the particular problems and the levels of achievement of

the students. Unfortunately, although this principle is generally accepted, it is difficult to put into practice. The Birmingham LEA makes ten students a minimum number although a class with a larger enrolment which settles down at an average attendance of eight is allowed to continue if felt to be valuable. When numbers reach eighteen the class is entitled to have two tutors. This means it may split into two groups each with one tutor, or it may continue if the students prefer to work as one group with two tutors. The latter system seems to work well. Students are also generally encouraged to attend on more than one night a week and some attend as many as four related classes.

However, attempts at grading or rationalising provision according to standards and needs meet with limited success. Grading can always be difficult in any adult group. In immigrant classes there are special problems. Community bonds are strong and these are reinforced by racial tensions, religious disciplines, and possibly the feeling of being different and in a minority. Principals and centre-heads are therefore unwilling to press the division of students into graded classes. Students come in groups and want to stay with their groups, though this breaks down as they get into a higher standard or into an examination class. Sometimes numbers are too small for effective grading and attendance is often erratic. Teachers are sometimes perplexed that the same people do not always seem to turn up at classes. In one area an attempt was made to grade classes containing a wide range of age groups, but as the adults were usually less advanced, grading meant that as they improved they were moved up into classes with schoolboys or people much younger than themselves, and this seemed to affect attendance. There are, of course, the usual problems that students become accustomed to a particular teacher and do not want to leave him or her.

Many of these problems arise from the nature of adult students and from immigrant adult students in particular. Attendance at classes is voluntary and an attempt to be too systematic might have quite the opposite from the desired effect, as well as being wholly alien to the traditions of adult education.

The Preparation of Teachers

The teachers in classes which immigrants attend are with very few exceptions part-time teachers of adults and it is unusual for them to have received any particular advice or guidance on their immigrant students. It is likely that for a class of illiterate or semi-illiterate students principals and organisers will try to find a teacher who has experience or expertise in some form of special education during the day. However, such people are not always or continuously available. Not only teaching techniques but personal relationships need to be thought about. As one teacher put it, it is difficult to deal with immigrants because they are unfamiliar. It is possible to put together the background of a British student—you can recognise the character, and this gives you confidence in dealing with the student. But the immigrant is an unknown quantity, whose background is mysterious, whose behaviour is less easily read, and this arouses perplexity and sometimes misunderstanding.

Training is a fairly recent arrival for teachers in adult education and little has so far been done in relation to immigrant education. The teaching of immigrants in school buildings often precludes an easy

access to audio-visual aids, even where teachers are aware of these and know how to use them. There seems to be ignorance about schemes of reading, word games and other technical aids to the teaching of illiterate adults and where these are known about, the money is not always there to pay for them. Some teachers admit to borrowing the children's textbooks which they use in school during the day.

In the West Midlands there are longstanding centres for immigrant education which might have become the centres for collating and disseminating the experience of several decades. However, the problems of teaching the adult immigrant have not been identified and singled out for any very far-reaching examination and it has not been thought necessary to make any special provision for guiding and assisting or giving financial support to those engaged in this work.

One authority in the West Midlands has appointed a full-time lecturer qualified to teach English as a second language, who divides his time between classes within the technical college and pioneer extra-mural classes. Some Birmingham teachers have attended courses from time to time and in 1969 an examination of the work of the Central Institute was undertaken by the then principal in co-operation with HMI. There has been considerable discussion by Birmingham full-time staff on this question and during the current year a new appointment has been made for an assistant to the Principal of Aston and Handsworth Institute with special responsibility for immigrant education, initially in Aston and Handsworth, and later extending to the city as a whole. In April the staff course for part-time teachers in adult education included a seminar on the subject of immigrant adult education.

Conclusion

It is evidence of the pioneering spirit, the social conscience and the competent empiricism which is characteristic of LEA adult education that so much has been done in a sphere which might be thought to merit a systematic approach on a national scale. Adult Education provision is the most under-capitalised area of our educational system and an examination of provision for the adult immigrant brings into focus some of its main strengths and its basic weaknesses. In no area of our educational system is more thought and attention paid to students' needs by the full-time practitioners; but does this preoccupation with adult relationships make up for the lack of resources? If the evening institute is the proper place for this type of education to be undertaken, perhaps there should be greater consideration of the means by which workers in adult education might have full support and encouragement to improve the standards and professionalism of the service given.

This article is concerned with the theory underlying our concept of education of the 9 to 16 age range and with the means of implementing this theory in the context of planning the whole curriculum.

Curriculum Planning

RICHARD WHITFIELD

Every school is necessarily involved in curriculum planning; that is, in providing a programme of activities through which it is hoped pupils will attain, or at least go some way towards attaining, certain educational ends. In Britain, this planning is traditionally the individual head's responsibility in consultation with the senior teaching staff of the school. Today these planning teams face complex questions to which purely pragmatic local answers present no durable solution; in making major curriculum decisions they are driven back into their basic educational philosophy, however ill-articulated. Perceptive teachers, if they ever doubted, no longer doubt the need for curriculum theories against which to evaluate the wealth of new materials and their concomitant pedagogical requirements.

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The Concept of a General Education

When we think of a general education we divorce its outcomes from any specific application in the social world, whether in employment, intellectual pursuit or leisure activity. A general education simply means 'non-specific' or 'non-specialised' education, and we commonly associate it with pupils' study of a range of subjects of manifestly different kinds held in some 'balance'—arts *and* sciences for example, to use C. P. Snow's popular, but naive, distinction. Courses of training for the crafts and the professions have an obvious *extrinsic* justification in the practical conduct of society. Intentions related to a general education must at least initially rely upon *intrinsic* worthwhileness, which ultimately reduces to some concept of the good life or the ideal or 'whole' man. A prerequisite for effective planning for a general education must therefore be an adequate characterisation of what we mean by these terms. It will for example be misguided to assemble the objectives of all the various common curriculum subjects in order to distil a consensus of aims of a general education; the aims of the whole are quite likely to be more than, or at least different from, those representing the sum of the present constituents.

Fortunately, work ranging over the past decade or more, particularly in the philosophy of education, e.g. Hirst and Peters, *The Logic of Education* (Routledge 1970) has helped to ground the concept of the whole man in a way which the schools might be able to translate into action programmes. And we must note that if we are committed to the concept of human wholeness through a general education, there is a strong moral obligation for us to make sure that we have the same underlying curricular *aims* (though not programmes) for all children, regardless of ability.

Clearing the Ground

There are essentially three sources which might act as a focus for planning the secondary curriculum: (i) society, (ii) the individual pupil and (iii) man's acquired knowledge and understanding. Each in its own way already exerts pressures on the components of the curriculum, but frequently their demands are unavoidably incompatible so that planning decisions are often based upon an uneasy and unrewarding compromise. Few in the British education service would advocate a 9–16 curriculum determined by the shifting sands of society, carrying a strong vocational bias. Many however may be inclined to base plans upon the 'needs and interests' of the child, and these 'pupil-centred' considerations are a source of much, often unnecessary, controversy. Of course at many points in the teaching of any curriculum component we must consider the individual pupils using all the expertise we can muster, but concern over their 'needs' (which are not necessarily equal to their 'wants') is shown much more through the methods and strategies of teaching than in the aims and content of what is taught. A defensible curriculum for a balanced general education cannot be on a completely free, help-yourself, or *à la carte* basis. Pupils in the age range 9–16 do not possess the necessary knowledge and experience upon which to base wise curricular choices without the assistance of some underlying referent against which teachers can guide them.

If we are searching for a fundamental referent for curriculum planning, only (iii)—man's acquired knowledge and understanding—stands as an irreducible element, for both our sense of community and our ideal of the person are contingent upon this aspect. This is not to suggest that (i) and (ii) above are not important in curriculum planning—but merely to assert that they are logically secondary, and they cannot therefore be adequately justified as the initial frame of reference for the upper junior/secondary curriculum.

Ways in which knowledge and understanding can be classified are therefore potentially of vital importance as a curricular axis. The frequently used, but not elusive, concepts of 'breadth' and 'balance' in relation to the curriculum will therefore be characterised by the differentiated kinds of knowledge and understanding which historical and psychological insight, together with philosophical analysis, show human beings to be capable of experiencing.

Analysis and Programme Planning

The conventional division of knowledge into an ever-increasing myriad of 'subjects' is no longer generally regarded as a helpful pattern for curriculum-planning. There have been several recent suggestions for dividing knowledge and understanding into anything from two to seven segments for curricular purposes in the quest for a supra-subject structure.

The two most scholarly and helpful analyses available to us for curricular purposes are, I believe, P. H. Hirst's seven 'forms of knowledge' and P. H. Phenix's six 'realms of meaning'. For Phenix the 'whole man' is one initiated into six kinds of human meaning, which can be viewed as the educational and therefore mental equivalent of our bodily limbs. All 'limbs' are essential for the effective functioning of the person as a person; our task in planning for a sound 'six-sided' general education is thus to translate the six areas of understanding, meaning or experience into a series of identifiable programmes.

In his book (*Realms of Meaning*, McGraw Hill, 1964) Phenix endeavours to associate particular subjects with each of his six realms of meaning. While it is clear that certain subjects are not likely, because of their logic, to contribute very significantly to the development of certain kinds of understanding (e.g. languages to empirics—see below), others (e.g. history) may contribute significantly to more than one realm (e.g. interpersonal understanding and synoptics)—the proportion being dependent upon how any particular teacher both interprets and teaches his discipline. The realms of meaning while partially indicating specific elements of curriculum content are therefore more a *set of criteria by which individual school staffs may test and balance their curricula.* Each conventional subject, or integrated study or interdisciplinary topic becomes justified in terms of its contribution, as judged by the teachers involved, to the development of the different kinds of meaning, and teachers' value preferences are further strongly incorporated through the relative times allocated to the six realms.

In the tabulated illustration the programme has been compiled in terms of a *possible* prime realm of contribution of each subject, and an English language policy across the school has been assumed, so that continuing basic language study for all children has not been overtly incorporated. The relative time allocation to the six realms of meaning is the author's own value judgement, though six

Realm of meaning —the main axis for planning the curriculum over 7 years (9–16)	*Brief interpretation* (source of human meanings)	*Relative curricular time*	*An example subject programme for pupils aged 15*
1. Symbolics	Means of communication (verbal and non-verbal symbols)	2	Mathematics + *either* a foreign language *or* extra English language *and/or* commercial subjects
2. Empirics	Truths open to controlled experimental verification within a system of concepts	1	Science; an integrated programme of physics, chemistry and biology
3. Aesthetics	Contemplative perception and idealised subjectivities. ('Ideated and tactile sensations'—B. Berenson)	1	Art & craft *or* music *or* literature and drama
4. Synnoetics	Relational insights, involving the self, especially interpersonal relationships	1	Physical education (½) + domestic sciences: the home (½)
5. Ethics/morality	Codes of human conduct freely and responsibly selected	1	Religious and moral education
6. Synoptics ('perspective' disciplines)	Means of promoting an integrated selfhood, i.e. a wholeness of meaning from life. (E.g. answers to questions When? Where? and What am I?)	1	History (½) + geography (½)

separate groups of teachers on in-service courses have, independently, settled for a similar division of time. In making this judgement it has been assumed that understandings within the realms of meaning (save symbolics, which provides the necessary tools for meaning) do not require differential times for the achievement of a specific level of competence. This is an assumption which requires empirical investigation, but in the meantime pragmatic adaptation of a defensible frame of reference is surely better than no referent at all.

The local choice of programme at any given time during the seven year period of schooling will consider, against the governing sixfold frame of reference, the pupils' interests and stages of intellectual and psychological development as well as any insights into teaching methods (e.g. that the 'drip-feed' mode of modern language teaching is less efficient than the 'period-immersion' method).

One of the advantages of a framework of this kind is that options which are offered to pupils are set upon a rational foundation. One can think of the 'menu' as a kind of *table d'hote* having six compulsory courses (each perhaps provided by a complementary faculty structure) with varying degrees of choice. The framework thus offers some prospect of a coherent general education, one which visibly hangs together and into which many of the new curriculum materials can be fitted. Our present programmes, so often compiled upon the basis of expediency and tradition, unjustifiably leave the curriculum to 'come together' in the minds of the pupils.

The Framework in a Wider Context

The structure for the curriculum for the 9–16 age range here presented can be further understood by examining its place in the context of the pupils' total educational development. We can think of the pre-school and nursery/infant school years as providing the basic operations and motivation upon which initiation into and development of differentiated kinds of human understanding depends. The ongoing development of language skills, because of the close relationship between language and thought, is a necessary tool for all forms of understanding at all ages, and this can be designated as the 'hub' of the core curriculum. The core is completed in its outer shell by the initiating segments of the six differentiated domains of meaning. Extending from the core in all directions, chiefly at the post-16 level, are the inevitable and desirable 'teeth' of specialised knowledge, whether of an academic, practical or vocational kind. These 'teeth' extend ultimately to the frontiers of research, and the picture is such that specialists in different areas—from the fourteenth-century historian to the skilled lathe operator—must have recourse to the core of meanings in order to communicate. The proper development of this core is thus fundamental not only for the fulfilment of the individual as a whole person, but to the continued existence of a society in which persons can *share* their full humanity and continue man's historically hard-fought achievements.

For a more detailed treatment of some of the ideas presented in this article, see Whitfield, R. C. (editor), Disciplines of the Curriculum, *McGraw Hill, 1971.*

What criteria should we use in assessing college courses? The author considers we should go further than mere cost effectiveness.

Validation and Assessment of College Courses

JOHN HICKS

John Hicks
Vice-Principal of Durham Technical College

A measure of the health of a college is the interest taken at all levels among staff in assessing, maintaining and improving the standards and range of course provision and regrettably in recent years there has developed a major interest, one might almost say in some quarters an obsession with maintaining what are optimistically described as cost effective criteria as the sole standards applied in the assessment of courses. The measures taken in this type of assessment are all too often crude and inappropriate to particular situations since cost effectiveness in many people's minds is reduced to the simple consideration of relationships between student numbers in classes and the 'costs' associated directly with those courses. The economics of this situation are discussed elsewhere but it seems fair to say that criteria other than 'cost effectiveness' are of relevance in considering college programmes of study.

Several considerations and groups of criteria can be applied in this situation. First, colleges have a role to play in satisfying the educational needs and aspirations of the community in as much as educational needs become evident which cannot be met by other bodies, authorities, or institutions and consequently, in spite of and in some cases regardless of the level of ascribable costs generated by these courses, they must, nevertheless, be made available. Perhaps the most obvious role of colleges is their serving of the vocational needs of the community, since if any simple statement could describe the work of further education it is that it is intended to meet the educational demand arising from the specialised interests of employers and employees in acquiring, maintaining or developing skills and bodies of knowledge associated with present and future occupational patterns of the region, and where viable courses cannot be offered owing to low recruitment figures then very small classes must be permitted if the benefits to society arising from doing so appear to outweigh purely economic arguments. The social role of colleges cannot be underestimated in a consideration such as this since colleges can and in most cases do serve roles in providing a focal point, a meeting place and centre for organising activities for widely diverse and differing groups within the community; and on occasions these social purposes are best served through the provision of courses such as, for example, sporting recreational or other non-vocational and in the strictest sense not educational purposes but which, nevertheless, ought not to be subject to the crude assessment of 'cost effectiveness' where it is felt that the social purpose served outweighs the heavy financial commitment. Finally colleges serve a cultural purpose in providing courses that sustain and develop the cultural health of the community (drama

courses, art and art appreciation immediately come to mind in this connection) and once again one can argue that criteria and considerations can be applied in this situation which far outweigh those considerations put to us by cost accountants and others.

If one accepts that the above constitute exceptions to the general case for critically validating and assessing courses merely in terms of costs and student numbers, nevertheless, they form a minority of colleges' commitments to the community and consequently attention can now be directed towards the main business of colleges. The criteria that we would apply in validating and assessing courses would depend upon a variety of considerations, the simplest of which are whether or not a course is a full-time or a part-time course, whether it is in response to a need of industry or is merely a general education course. There is scarcely space in this short statement to consider all forms and types of criteria and so I give below a brief discussion of possible criteria to be applied to a full-time educational course substantially based upon GCE studies.

Three means of assessing these courses immediately come to mind. First, placement, this could be taken to mean a consideration of how many and what type of jobs are obtained by a group leaving the college, not merely a crude assessment of, for example, '80 per cent gained jobs within three weeks of leaving college', but on a more sophisticated comparison between the position of this group of students leaving the college as compared with one's knowledge of their situation when they left previous educational institutions or alternatively the position of our leavers compared with that of school leavers of comparable age and levels of academic attainment. In this connection not merely taking employment is of relevance, since many of our leavers seek places in colleges including those offering degree or degree equivalent courses, and again their 'placement' as compared with their previous situation and the success or failure of a comparable student in other establishments would be valid.

Secondly, we would consider examination results on a crude level. This could simply mean that the degree of pass or failure in student entry by the college for externally set and assessed examinations would be taken as a measure of course success, i.e. 50 per cent pass rate—50 per cent successful of the course. At a slightly more sophisticated level the grade of pass could be taken into account. These assessments like those above are of little value unless they can be compared with other results, consequently they ought to be looked at against the previous history of the candidate in question—the comparisons between college candidates and groups in schools or other establishments would be equally valid here.

A third method of assessing a course would be a simple assessment of trends in recruitment to or drop-out from the course or particular classes within the courses. Growth and decline in numbers presenting themselves for initial enrolment or final entry to examinations gives a relatively unsophisticated but nonetheless interesting account of how others consider the course and the degree of respect or esteem in which they hold it, as well as in some cases some means of identifying study problems of students who fail to complete courses or whose performance in examinations fails to equate with reasonable staff or student expectations. It could well be, of course, that restriction upon recruitment, internal or external, could have an effect up n these

crude numbers and plainly this type of simple assessment would need to be treated with the greatest caution. Other groups, perhaps part-time or block release groups, would be capable of assessment to a greater or lesser extent on the lines indicated above, but particular cases would perhaps need different or additional criteria, for example, the employer's reactions, employment history of students, post college courses or assessment by staff of the degree of success or failure of the courses taken as a whole.

In considering a college as a community the effectiveness of the institution could be said to be shown in the development of a corporate life within the college. The degree, type and level of development of cultural, social and sporting activities perhaps indicate, again in a crude and relatively unsophisticated way, the health and vigour of the community. Again relationships between staff and students, between the college and other colleges and between senior and junior staff coud be a measure of the effectiveness of the college and its courses as indeed could be the rate of turnover of staff.

Before courses or colleges could be validated or assessed it seems only fair that students and the staff involved in the day-to-day work of the establishment should be given those conditions, equipment and other suitable environmental factors necessary for the satisfactory completion of tasks undertaken and four tests could be applied to determine the existence of suitable environments.

First the physical conditions under which staff and students work must be suitable for the tasks and other activities that will be carried through. One could give an exhaustive list of suitable physical conditions in particular courses but it is sufficient perhaps to say that the siting and structure of the premises ought to be suitable for the purposes stated or implied in the course description, adequately lit, ventilated, heated (or cooled) and conveniently arranged or disposed in relation to the particular assignments that form necessary and integral parts of the course. Secondly the equipment housed or brought into the physical environment for use on the course must be of a type, quality and quantity suitable for the tasks to be undertaken and must be installed, maintained and operated in a sound, efficient and safe fashion and that these factors constantly be under the scrutiny of senior staff and others with an interest in the success of the course. Thirdly, the staff involved in the work most, apart from being suitable temperamentally and physically for the work, must also be adequately skilled, experienced and qualified to carry through their tasks and supervise the tasks of students, technicians and staff associated with them. Finally the students themselves must, through the process of selection or other means of assessment, be demonstrably capable of profiting in the studies undertaken which is perhaps the most necessary pre-condition for the successful growth of college courses. All four of the matters referred to above are capable of objective assessment.

It is increasingly a burden on educationalists and others involved in administration that everyone appears to be sending out questionnaires to be completed with some urgency, and I am half persuaded that the value of the questionnaire has been substantially eroded in recent years by the indiscriminate, one might even say irresponsible, use of these instruments in gaining what is, all too often, unreliable or else insignificant information. Nevertheless the use of this instrument as a

means of assessing the validation of courses and colleges cannot be underestimated. First, questionnaires to potential students via structured interviews with a standard interview schedule could produce information of some significance in relation to their purpose in seeking a place in the college. Common sources of information about the college, the use that potential students would hope to put the qualification that they would gain, and so on. Secondly, questioning students in the college gives some idea of their levels of attainment and their satisfaction or areas of discontent with the course that they are pursuing in a sense that this would be a follow up on the potential student questionnaire. Thirdly, the 'following up' of students that have left the colleges would give some idea of how well they have done in their careers following on from the course, how their progress ties in with the aspirations of potential students and especially how far their own initial aspirations have been fulfilled. Finally staff reports on student progress and course development taken in conjunction with their detailed accounts of projected and completed course work and projects must be of considerable interest, especially if as a matter of course, staff prepare a detailed report on the degree of success or failure in the student group taken as a whole, rather than as individuals.

Twenty-five trained school counsellors co-operated in a study of their work carried out by the University of Keele Institute of Education. This article discusses the pattern of work that emerged.

Work of the School Counsellor

A. J. M. THOMPSON and A. W. BOLGER

The following article summarises the findings of 'An Investigation Into the Work Performed by Some Trained Counsellors in English Secondary Schools', carried out by Mr A. J. Thompson between 1967 and 1970. The original study had as its main aims

'i. *to investigate the range of work activities carried out by the counsellors*

ii. *to investigate the attitudes of counsellors and aspects of their work, the schools they work in and the training they received*

iii. *to investigate the attitudes of head teachers to the effects of the introduction of a counsellor in their school.*'

Originally it was hoped to include in the study all those people who had completed by July 1968 one of the Keele, Reading or Exeter University one-year training courses for counsellors. Of the 116 people thus approached, some did not reply, some proved no longer to be working as counsellors (though most were still in some form of teaching post) and of the remainder only 25 counsellors in school managed to maintain the very detailed work records required for the research for a whole school year. Although the sample was thus smaller than had been hoped, it has nevertheless produced useful information. The findings provoke some interesting questions on the training of counsellors in relation to the work which they actually appear to undertake in schools: they have been used by Keele in reassessing the content and emphasis of the counselling course.—Editor

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A. W. Bolger is Lecturer in Educational Psychology at Keele.

Most of the counsellors involved in the study were holding posts in comprehensive schools but three were working in grammar and six in secondary modern schools. Training in counselling began such a short time ago that none had had more than three years' experience. Most were designated as school counsellors, eighteen of them being considered as full time, although two of these spent a small proportion of their time (6 per cent and 24 per cent respectively) in traditional teaching. The seven who acted as part time counsellors spent from 35–76 per cent of their time in traditional teaching. This means that the bulk of the sample were spending most of their time in school involved in counselling activities.

The chief counsellor activity, as might be expected, was the individual interview. The number of such interviews varied greatly from counsellor to counsellor according to size of school, proportion of time spent in counselling and the policy of each counsellor. One counsellor recorded 1449 interviews during the year and three more recorded

over one thousand. At the other end of the scale were four who recorded between two and three hundred. The average was 582 interviews (49 per cent boys, 50 per cent girls, 1 per cent staff) of which 46 per cent were requested by the pupils themselves, 34 per cent referred by the staff and 20 per cent were routine interviews. It is interesting to see that boys and girls were so evenly divided. The detailed analysis of one counsellor's records which has been made shows that girls were more likely to request interviews but that boys were interviewed more frequently. If this trend appears in other records it will suggest that, while girls perceive more readily that they need help, more boys need long and persistent treatment.

The category 'routine interviews' covers those situations in which the counsellor decides to interview all the pupils in a particular category for the same purpose. He may interview all new entrants into the school for the purpose of orientating them to the school, explaining the function of the school counsellor and gathering information for school records on all fourth formers for vocational counselling. More than 50 per cent of individual interviews, other than routine, were concerned with personal problems rather than educational or vocational although again there was great variation between counsellors, some recording a much higher percentage of vocational or educational interviews while one counsellor recorded no interviews that were not personal in character. Into this 'personal' category fall conflicts with other people, personality problems, behaviour problems at school and at home, absenteeism including school refusal and supportive counselling of child guidance clinic clients.

The term group work is often used by counsellors to cover any activities other than individual interviews. The size of the groups involved varies considerably as does the kind of activity. Eight types of group work are listed. The first, social education is a wide category including education for personal relations, sex education, discussion of moral issues and problems of adulthood. A large proportion of the counsellors in the study were involved in this type of activity, one counsellor took 376 such periods in the year (this counsellor spent 45 per cent of his time in counselling activities and this was split equally between individual and group activities), while the average number of periods on social education in the group as a whole is 93. Vocational guidance is used to describe the viewing and discussion of careers films, talks and discussions on specific occupations and talks by visiting speakers. Counsellors, on an average, spent about half the time on vocational guidance that they spent on social education. The next most frequent group activity was 'Testing' and group testing sessions were used for vocational guidance and social education as well as screening for individual counselling and intelligence and attainment testing. This activity is more evenly distributed among counsellors than the next category, 'Normal lesson for absent teacher' in which only a few counsellors were greatly involved (one counsellor spent 120 periods taking lessons for absent teachers). Other groups met to find information for school records, for educational guidance and for the counsellor to explain his role while vocational visits were also a general group activity.

Over ninety different agencies were mentioned by different counsellors. These were too many for adequate summary but the most frequently mentioned and the reasons for contact are listed below. Child guidance

appeared in twenty-two records, six counsellors having contacted the clinic over twenty times. The main reasons for contact were the referral of disturbed pupils and the discussion of these pupils and also the testing of possible ESN pupils. The educational welfare department appeared in twenty-one records and thirteen counsellors consulted the EWO on more than twenty occasions. The chief reasons given were the discussion of school absentees, parents' applications for financial aid and consultation about a child's home background. The School Health Service appeared in twenty-four records and two counsellors consulted the school doctor or nurse over twenty times, the most usual reason being the illness of individual pupils. The Youth Employment Service appeared on twenty-three records with nine counsellors making liaison on more than twenty occasions. Four main reasons for contact were given: the referral of individual pupils, assistance in YEO's routine, interviewing in school of school leavers, discussion of the school's programme of careers work and discussion of vocational interest testing carried out by counsellors. The children's department was consulted by twenty counsellors, seven of them on more than twenty occasions. The contacts were made to discuss the progress of children in care and to discuss the home background of individual pupils. Other agencies contacted by more than six counsellors were hospitals, GP's, LEA's, special schools, local primary and secondary schools, colleges of education and further education, teachers' professional groups, employers, the probation service, the Department of Health and Social Service, voluntary welfare organisations, the National Federation for Educational Research, ministers of religion, police, youth services, counselling courses, other counsellors and parent groups. This very wide range of outside contacts illustrates vividly the role played by the school counsellor as a 'link-man' in the child welfare services.

Twelve counsellors in the study had the help of their own part-time secretaries who worked an average of fifteen hours per week. All counsellors recorded various administrative and clerical work including correspondence, maintenance of the school record system, maintenance of careers information, test marking, making out appointments diaries, making phone calls, checking attendance records and copying school time-tables. In addition the counsellors recorded a wide range of other activities. Consultations with school staff, mostly with regard to individual pupils, took most time; but the maintenance of research records and the orientation of new pupils to school–together with more traditional education duties such as the allocation of pupils to classes, examination administration and invigilation, lesson preparation and marking—were all allocated significant time.

A questionnaire to head teachers consisting of six pre-coded questions and two open-ended questions surveyed their reaction to the counsellors' work. Half of the head teachers felt that the counsellors' presence in the school had led to an increase in staff involvement in pastoral care—'increase in staff awareness of pupil problems' was a comment made by two respondents. The other half thought that the counsellor had not altered the pastoral care of teachers since there was already a long tradition of involvement. One head teacher, however, thought that staff involvement had decreased since the teachers were now referring pupils to the counsellor. Twenty-one heads thought that the introduction of a counsellor had improved relations between school

and welfare agencies while three thought that relations had always been good and that no change could be discerned. Heads were evenly divided again between those who felt that the counsellor had helped to improve parent relations and those who felt there had been no change. Twenty head teachers thought that educational guidance had improved with the introduction of the counsellor, the other four were equally divided between those who thought it was too early to tell and those who could not see any change. 'Because of understaffing and lack of facilities, guidance is negative in terms of which subjects to drop rather than which to take', was one head's comment.

A similar response was made to a question on careers guidance, most of those who felt that there was no change considering that careers guidance was already good. There was a unanimous opinion that the counsellor's presence had improved personal guidance, five of the heads adding the comment 'very marked improvement.' In answer to an open-ended question the heads listed many ways in which they had benefited from the introduction of a counsellor, including a saving in their own time, an improvement in school records, improved liaison with agencies, parents and feeder/primary schools. In answer to the question 'Has the work of the counsellor disappointed you in any way?' there were some varied comments but no consensus. One head was concerned about the non-judgmental aspect of the counsellor's role but another felt that the counsellor was still too much 'a member of the establishment'. One head complained of the counsellor's use of technical language while another complained that hypochondriac pupils could be made worse by sympathy. Two heads complained of the isolation of their counsellor which is perhaps a more serious complaint. On the other hand seven heads said 'No', they were not disappointed, four others said roundly 'No, on the contrary', and seven others made favourable comments. In fact only three head teachers seemed to express any serious disappointment.

A questionnaire to counsellors assessed the type of pupil problems counsellors felt best suited to deal with and reached the following conclusions. More counsellors felt confident in dealing with vocational problems than any other kind of problem while some counsellors felt inadequate to deal with some personal/emotional problems. More counsellors felt that they should not be concerned with punishment or disciplinary problems more than any other type of problem. Counsellors were less consistent in their opinions of the activities to which they had paid too much or too little time. Five said they had devoted insufficient time to 'everything', while five others felt they had not given parents sufficient time and four others thought they ought to have made more routine interviews. These four were balanced by an equal number who felt they had spent too much time on routine interviews and five who felt that they had given a disproportionate time to vocational guidance.

No consensus could be reached in these answers because each counsellor had had different opportunities and had discerned varying needs in their respective schools. The whole survey, however, shows a remarkable consistency in the work being done by the school counsellors. This work is very different from that most frequently done by American counsellors and shows the emergence of a distinctive school counsellor role in British schools.

Objectives and Perspectives in Education

BEN MORRIS

Routledge and Kegan Paul £2.50

This collection of essays and addresses provides an authentic and challenging contribution to educational thought and practice. Perhaps its main lesson is that those who are paid to talk and to act in the field of education must also learn and repeat learning. They are become as sounding brass and tinkling cymbals unless they temper punditry with a questing spirit. The teacher with the will to do so will learn from his pupils, the lecturer from his students and the administrator from those he administers. Only by observation and analysis is progress brought about. Professor Morris and the Delphic Oracle are at one in recommending self-knowledge.

It follows therefore that the core of Professor Morris's thought should lie in the concept of personal growth and that more than any other contemporary writer on education he should reflect the teaching of Freud. His tribute to Freud's work, first published in 1958, is of outstanding lucidity and indeed literary distinction. The suggestion for teachers that emerges is above all the need to recognise the duality of human feelings and to resolve it in terms of a working approach in which some motion is made towards the reconciliation of one's loves and hates.

The book falls into three parts of which the central section is the most important. In this Morris traces the outline of a theory of the person on which he believes the education of a teacher must necessarily be based. The teacher must learn to be rather than to do. He should take as his example the parent, the creator, rather than the preacher or manipulator. He should not seek to mould a pupil but to promote his personal maturity, the genuine autonomy of his unique self. Pretensions towards social engineering, confusion between therapy and teaching, the uneasy self-consciousness of a young profession, all these factors so plainly manifest at the point reached in our development are still insufficient to outweigh the claims of Professor Morris, based on his rich store of learning and experience.

The efforts of teachers are unlikely ever to reflect any firm consensus on educational aims and methods. But when Professor Morris brings to its conclusion the work on which he tells us he is now engaged, we may be guided further on the way towards perception of the essential foundations of the teachers' art.

D.M.H.

Learning How to Learn

ROBERT J. FISHER

Harcourt Brace Jovanovitch (New York) £1.80

In his preface Mr Robert Fisher pays warm tribute to the welcome he received from the Principal and staff of the Berkhsire College of Education during a two-year exchange (1968–70) from his post at Eastern Michigan University. That he used his time well any reader will freely admit.

The book is designed to help American educators extract from English primary school practices what will be of use to them; but the English reader will find a conspectus of what is happening here of a breadth and thoroughness not matched, probably, since the Plowden Report. If the book is a mini-Plowden, it is both more personal—and direct, easy reading—and on some aspects more objective as the observer from overseas puts those questions which do not always spring to English minds. As one example, Mr Fisher notes the English concern with 'standards'; but this prompts him to ask what we really mean by standards and to arrive at six differing meanings of the term. One of his conclusions is that Americans who talk about transplanting England's open schools to the United States need to appreciate more than they often do how in England informality is accompanied by high expectations. In our own pleasure at this judgement, we English readers can nevertheless justly ask whether our own concepts of standards are always as crystal clear as they might be.

In 233 pages of text the author looks concisely at most aspects of the English primary school and the preparation of teachers for it. The chapter headings are illuminating. 'Nursery Schools', 'Infant Schools' and 'Junior Schools' are lucid and workmanlike. More thought-provoking to us are 'American Failures and English Successes', 'Six English Critiques of Current Reforms', 'The Preparation of Primary School Teachers' and 'Class Bias: England's Number One Education Problem'—the last-named being summed up in one of the sub-headings: 'Blindness to the magnitude of the problem'.

Among the keenest portraits is that of 'The Class Teacher' who has a chapter to himself. As Mr Fisher sees him, the English class teacher possesses a degree of autonomy unequalled anywhere else in the world; he or she resists imposed expectations and outside controls; he works alongside children, respecting their ideas; he is adaptable, positive, talented in one or more of the creative skills, and is too given to self-criticism and scepticism to develop a sense of complacency. But he is 'locked into teaching'; there is no future for him other than to become a head teacher; and his salary and position have deteriorated since 1945 in comparison with his colleagues in other sectors. 'To see ourselves as others see us', even if their picture is not wholly ours, is a good experience.

This review would not be complete without reference to Mr Fisher's bibliography—28 pages of titles of books, pamphlets and articles providing a compact and comprehensive store-house of references.

L.J.B.

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Movement is about the ways in which children express spontaneous joy in running, leaping, and dancing, and how this can be channelled into creative activity in school. The book provides an authoritative statement of the general principles of modern physical education and its working methods. It has been written mainly with the non-specialist teacher in the primary school in mind, but the principles it discusses are equally applicable to physical education in the early secondary years.

Movement which is illustrated by over 50 photographs, many of them full page, costs only £1.25 (by post £1.38). Copies can be obtained by writing to HMSO PO Box 569 London SE1, or through any bookseller.